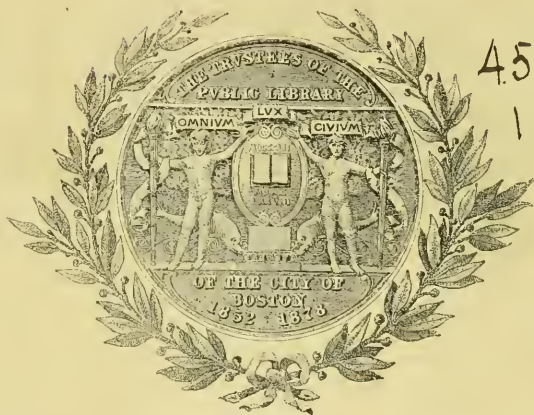


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LABOR BULLETINS

OF THE

COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

These Bulletins contain a large variety of interesting and pertinent matter on the Social and Industrial Condition of the Workingman, together with leading articles on the Condition of Employment, Earnings, etc. The following numbers are the only ones now remaining in print, and will be forwarded upon receipt of five cents each to cover the cost of postage.

No. 31, May, 1904. City Labor in Massachusetts—Review of Employment and Earnings for Six Months ending April 30, 1904—Average Retail Prices in 17 Cities—Bi-monthly Record of Strikes and Lockouts—Editorial, Rev. Jesse H. Jones—Industrial Agreements—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Open and Closed Shop—Labor Legislation in Other States and Foreign Countries—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 32, July, 1904. Child Labor in the United States and Massachusetts—Net Profits of Labor and Capital—The Inheritance Tax—Absence after Pay Day—Pay of Navy Yard Workmen—Labor Legislation in Massachusetts for 1904—Industrial Agreements—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Eight-hour Workday—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 36, June, 1905. Tramps and Vagrants. Census of 1905—The Loom System—Weekly Day of Rest—Wages and Hours of Labor on Public Works—The Census Enumerators of 1905—Average Retail Prices, October and April—Semi-annual Record of Strikes and Lockouts: Six Months ending April 30, 1905—Labor Legislation in Massachusetts for 1905—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Profit Sharing—Industrial Agreements—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 42, July, 1906. Non-Collectable Indebtedness—Pawnbrokers' Pledges—Hours of Labor in Certain Occupations—Labor Legislation in 1906—Current Comment on Labor Questions: The Inheritance Tax—Industrial Information—Industrial Agreements—Trade Union Notes—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 43, September, 1906. Organization of Trade Schools—Textile Schools in the United States—Convention of Labor Bureaus—Maternity Aid—Stone-meal as a Fertilizer—Injunctions against Strikes and Lockouts—Industrial Information—Industrial Agreements—Trade Union Notes—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts

—Statistical Abstracts—Trade Union Directory for 1906.

No. 45, January, 1907. Income and Inheritance Taxes—Child Labor and the Census—Cotton Manufacturing in Massachusetts in 1850 and 1905—Railroad Pensions in the United States and Canada—Convict Labor in Massachusetts—The President on Labor Matters—Trade Union Notes—Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor—Industrial Agreements—Current Comment: Old-age Pensions—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Magazine Articles on Labor Topics, 1906.

No. 46, February, 1907. Unemployment in Massachusetts—State Free Employment Office—Insurance against Unemployment in Foreign Countries—The Metropolitan District—Population: Boston and Massachusetts—Labor Legislation: United States and Canada, 1906—Industrial Agreements—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Industrial Information.

No. 47, March, 1907. Boston's Taxpayers—Distributive Co-operation in New England—Industrial Education for Shoe Workers—Technical Education: England and the United States—Females in Gainful Occupations, 1895, 1905—Strikes and Lockouts: Massachusetts, 1905-06.—State Free Employment Office—Labor Legislation in Foreign Countries, 1906—Current Comment: Large versus Small Families—Trade Union Notes—Industrial Agreements—Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Industrial Information.

No. 48, April, 1907. Manufactures: Massachusetts and Other States, No. 1, Comparison for Certain Industries—The German Workman—Business Advertising—Postal Savings Banks—State Free Employment Office—Trade Union Notes—Industrial Agreements—Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Industrial Information.

No. 49, May, 1907. Manufactures: Massachusetts and Other States, No. 2, Comparison for 300 Cities—Immigrant Aliens Destined for Massachusetts, 1897-1906—Average Retail Prices, April, 1907—State Free Employment Office—Quarterly Record of Strikes and Lockouts: October, November, and December, 1906—Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Industrial Information.

LABOR BULLETIN

OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF

MASSACHUSETTS

No. 50

JUNE, 1907.

CONTAINING :

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| Manufactures : Massachusetts and Other States. No. 3. | Quarterly Record of Strikes and Lockouts. |
| Changes in Rates of Wages and Hours of Labor in Massachusetts, 1906. | Trade Union Notes. |
| Free Employment Offices. | Industrial Agreements. |
| Estimated Population of Massachusetts Cities, 1906-1910. | Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor. |
| Trade Unions in Foreign Countries. | Excerpts. |
| | Statistical Abstracts. |
| | Industrial Information. |
| | Index to Bulletins Nos. 45 to 50. |

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JUNE, 1907.

WHOLE No. 50.

Editor: CHAS. F. PIDGIN, Chief of Bureau.

Associate Editors: FRANK H. DROWN, ROSWELL F. PHELPS, FRANK S. DROWN.

MANUFACTURES:

MASSACHUSETTS AND OTHER STATES, 1850-1905.

No. 3. Comparison by States.

In 1850, according to a revised and more thorough method of collecting and presenting the statistics gathered at each Decennial Census of the United States than had been in use previously, the output of all the manufacturing establishments (together with many of the hand trades) was found to be \$1,019,109,616; in 1905, the value of the output of only the strictly manufacturing plants (excluding the hand trades such as dress-making, carpentering, painting, cobbling, blacksmithing, wheelwrighting, etc.) was \$14,802,147,087. This was an increase in 1905 as compared with 1850 of 1,352.46 per cent.

In 1850, Massachusetts ranked second among the States of the Union; in 1860, third, being superseded by Pennsylvania. In 1870 and 1880 she retained third position, but in 1890 was ranked by Pennsylvania and Illinois, dropping to fourth place, which position she has held ever since. Ohio, holding fifth place in 1905, is our nearest competitor, producing, however, a value of manufactured product 163 millions less than Massachusetts in that year. The increase in Massachusetts in 1905 when compared with 1850 was 612.61 per cent, while Ohio increased its products in the same time 1,432.58 per cent, a higher rate of increase than that for the United States as a whole.

The Census of Manufactures in 1905 was the first in which the canvass was confined to establishments conducted under what is known as the factory system, excluding the neighborhood industries and hand trades. The statistics for these mechanical trades have been a confusing element in the Census of Manufactures, and their omission confines the data to a presentation of the true manufacturing industries of the country. To

secure comparable figures for 1905 it was therefore necessary to revise the published reports of the Twelfth Census. In comparing the results of the present Census with those of former censuses the different methods should be considered.

The revision of the published statistics for 1900 necessary for purposes of comparison involved considerable difficulty. Certain industries, such as custom millinery, custom tailoring, dressmaking, taxidermy, cobbling, carpentering, and custom grist and saw mills, were wholly omitted. The only available information on which to base the elimination of non-factory industries from industries which included factories as well as local establishments was that contained in the original reports from these establishments, and those reports were not collected with such segregation in view. It was found that some establishments, which in 1900 did little real manufacturing, had in five years developed into true factories. On the other hand, in certain establishments the strictly manufacturing operations conducted in 1900 had later been discontinued, although the establishments were still in business doing custom and repair work. The latter class, however, was composed mainly of small establishments, and, except as to the number reported, their inclusion or omission has little effect on the statistics.¹

The reports were not secured from small establishments in which manufacturing was incidental to mercantile or other business; or from establishments in which the value of the products for the year amounted to less than \$500; or from educational, eleemosynary, and penal institutions; or from governmental establishments.¹

The statistics for the manufacturing industries of the country for the Censuses of 1900 and 1905 are shown in the following table by States and Territories:

Value of Goods Made. United States, 1900, 1905.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	1900	1905	INCREASE IN 1905 AS COMPARED WITH 1900	
			Amounts	Percentages
UNITED STATES.	\$11,411,121,122	\$14,802,147,087	\$3,391,025,965	29.72
New York,	1,871,830,872	2,488,345,579	616,514,707	32.94
Pennsylvania,	1,649,882,380	1,955,551,332	305,668,952	18.53
Illinois,	1,120,868,308	1,410,342,129	289,473,821	25.83
Massachusetts,	907,626,439	1,124,092,051	216,465,612	23.85
Ohio,	748,670,855	960,811,857	212,141,002	28.34
New Jersey,	553,005,684	774,369,025	221,363,341	40.03
Missouri,	316,304,095	439,548,957	123,244,862	38.96
Michigan,	319,691,856	429,120,060	109,428,204	34.23
Wisconsin,	326,752,878	411,139,681	84,386,803	25.83
Indiana,	337,071,630	393,954,405	56,882,775	16.88
Connecticut,	315,106,150	369,082,091	53,975,941	17.13
California,	257,385,521	367,218,494	109,832,973	42.67
Minnesota,	223,692,922	307,858,073	84,165,151	37.63
Maryland,	211,076,143	243,375,996	32,299,854	15.30
Rhode Island,	165,550,382	202,109,583	36,559,201	22.08
Kansas,	154,008,544	198,244,992	44,236,448	28.72
Louisiana,	111,397,919	186,379,592	74,981,673	67.31
Iowa,	132,870,865	160,572,313	27,701,448	20.85
Kentucky,	126,508,660	159,753,968	33,245,308	26.28
Nebraska,	130,302,453	154,918,220	24,615,767	18.89
Georgia,	94,532,368	151,040,455	56,508,087	59.78
Texas,	92,894,433	150,528,389	57,633,956	62.04

¹ Bulletin 57, Bureau of the Census, Washington, D. C.

Value of Goods Made. United States, 1900, 1905—Concluded.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	1900	1905	INCREASE IN 1905 AS COM- PARED WITH 1900	
			Amounts	Percentages
UNITED STATES—Con.				
Virginia,	\$108,644,150	\$148,856,525	\$40,212,375	37.01
Maine,	112,959,098	144,020,197	31,061,099	27.50
North Carolina,	85,274,083	142,520,776	57,246,693	67.13
Tennessee,	92,749,129	137,900,476	45,211,347	48.75
Washington,	70,831,345	125,821,667	57,990,322	81.87
New Hampshire,	107,590,803	123,610,904	16,020,101	14.89
Alabama,	72,109,929	109,169,922	37,059,993	51.39
Colorado,	89,067,879	100,143,999	11,076,120	12.44
West Virginia,	67,006,822	99,040,676	32,033,854	47.81
South Carolina,	53,335,811	79,376,262	26,040,451	48.82
Montana,	52,744,997	66,415,452	13,670,455	25.92
Vermont,	51,515,228	63,083,611	11,568,383	22.46
Mississippi,	33,718,517	57,451,445	23,732,928	70.39
Oregon,	36,592,714	55,525,123	18,932,409	51.74
Arkansas,	39,887,578	53,864,394	13,976,816	35.04
Florida,	34,183,509	50,298,290	16,114,781	47.14
Delaware,	41,321,061	41,160,276	160,785	0.39
Utah,	17,981,648	38,926,464	20,944,816	116.48
Arizona,	20,438,987	28,083,192	7,644,205	37.40
District of Columbia,	16,426,408	18,359,159	1,932,751	11.77
Oklahoma,	5,504,869	16,549,656	11,044,787	200.64
South Dakota,	9,529,946	13,085,333	3,555,387	37.31
North Dakota,	6,259,840	10,217,914	3,958,074	63.23
Idaho,	3,001,442	8,768,743	5,767,301	192.15
Alaska,	4,194,421	8,244,524	4,050,103	96.56
Indian Territory,	2,629,067	7,909,451	5,280,384	200.85
New Mexico,	4,060,924	5,705,880	1,644,956	40.51
Wyoming,	3,268,555	3,523,260	254,705	7.79
Nevada,	1,261,005	3,096,274	1,835,269	145.54

¹ Decrease.

The above table presents a comparison between 1900 and 1905 for the United States and the States and Territories, drawn from the figures presented by the United States Census Office. It was found impracticable, as well as impossible, by the Federal Bureau of the Census to correct the totals published in censuses prior to 1900 for all manufacturing and mechanical industries so that they would be comparable with the totals for the factory industries of 1905. For well-defined factory industries such as boots and shoes, carpetings, cotton goods, etc., the comparison is satisfactory for 1900 and 1905,² but, as before stated, the other comparisons are not exact, because the earlier totals included reports for the small custom mills and neighborhood shops which are, however, excluded from the above published totals of 1900 and 1905. The Federal Census Office in 1905 reached the same conclusion that this Bureau arrived at over 10 years before, to wit, "The inclusion of the reports for these small establishments has but slight effect in the statistics except that it increases the number of establishments."

The increase in value of goods made for the United States in 1905 compared with 1900 was 29.72 per cent. New York, holding first rank among the States, shows an increase in the five years of 32.94 per cent; Pennsylvania, ranking second, an increase of 18.53 per cent; Illinois, ranking third, an increase of 25.83 per cent; and Massachusetts, ranking fourth, an increase of 23.85 per cent. Only one State exhibits a decrease. Delaware, and the percentage of decrease is a trifle more than one-third of one per cent.

² See Labor Bulletin No. 48, pp. 197, 209.

The product value of the mills and factories of Massachusetts in 1905 shows an increase of 23.58 per cent as stated when compared with the year 1900. In the published figures of both of these censuses the neighborhood industries and hand trades have been eliminated, so that the figures are comparable. Comparing 1900 with 1890, the figures of which censuses *include* neighborhood industries and hand trades as well as factory product, an increase of 16.56 per cent for the later year is found. There was an increase of 40.72 per cent in 1890 as compared with 1880, and an increase of 13.92 per cent in comparing 1880 with 1870. In 1870, as compared with 1860, the increase was 116.76 per cent; and in 1860, as compared with 1850, it was 62 per cent.

In the table shown below a summarization of all establishments in all factory industries in the United States is compared with all the establishments in all the factory industries in Massachusetts, and the percentages that the items of capital, product, etc., of Massachusetts factories bear to the total capital, product, etc., of the United States is also shown.

CLASSIFICATION.	1905		Percentages of Massachusetts of the United States
	United States	Massachusetts	
Number of establishments,	216,262	10,723	4.96
Amount of capital invested,	\$12,686,265,673	\$965,948,887	7.61
Number of salaried officials,	519,751	32,824	6.32
Total amount of salaries paid,	\$574,761,231	\$39,654,624	6.90
Average number of wage-earners,	5,470,321	488,399	8.93
Total amount of wages paid,	\$2,611,540,532	\$232,388,946	8.90
Men 16 years and over,	4,244,538	326,586	7.69
Wages,	\$2,266,273,317	\$178,513,343	7.88
Women 16 years and over,	1,065,884	147,044	13.80
Wages,	\$317,279,008	\$50,521,465	15.92
Children under 16 years,	159,899	14,769	9.24
Wages,	\$27,988,207	\$3,354,138	11.98
Miscellaneous expenses,	\$1,455,019,473	\$93,840,185	6.45
Stock and materials used,	\$8,503,949,756	\$626,410,431	7.37
Total value of goods made,	\$14,802,147,087	\$1,124,092,051	7.59

Massachusetts contained about five per cent of the total number of establishments; it had invested over seven and one-half per cent of the capital; it employed about nine per cent of the average number of wage-earners and paid them in wages about nine per cent of the total amount paid to all wage-earners employed in factory industries in the United States; it used over seven and one-third per cent of the stock and materials in the different factories; and produced over seven and one-half per cent of the product of the whole United States.

It is interesting to note that while Massachusetts employed nearly 14 per cent of the women that were employed in manufactures in the United States, it paid these women nearly 16 per cent of the amount paid in wages to women.

The final table shows the relation of each State to the United States in the value of product, for each of the census years from 1850 to 1905:

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	1905	1900	1890	1880	1870	1860	1850
UNITED STATES.	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
New York,	16.81	16.40	18.26	20.13	18.55	20.09	23.31
Pennsylvania,	13.21	14.46	14.21	13.87	16.82	15.38	15.21
Illinois,	9.53	9.82	9.70	7.73	4.86	3.05	1.62
Massachusetts,	7.59	7.95	9.48	11.75	13.09	13.55	15.48
Ohio,	6.49	6.56	6.85	6.49	6.37	6.45	6.15
New Jersey,	5.23	4.85	3.78	4.74	4.00	4.05	3.91
Missouri,	2.97	2.77	3.46	3.08	4.87	2.22	2.39
Michigan,	2.90	2.80	2.97	2.81	2.80	1.73	1.10
Wisconsin,	2.78	2.86	2.65	2.39	1.82	1.48	0.91
Indiana,	2.66	2.95	2.42	2.76	2.57	2.27	1.84
Connecticut,	2.49	2.76	2.65	3.46	3.81	4.34	4.62
California,	2.48	2.26	2.28	2.17	1.57	3.62	1.26
Minnesota,	2.08	1.96	2.05	1.42	0.55	0.18	0.01
Maryland,	1.64	1.85	1.83	1.99	1.81	2.21	3.24
Rhode Island,	1.37	1.43	1.52	1.94	2.63	2.21	2.17
Kansas,	1.34	1.35	1.18	0.58	0.28	0.23	—
Louisiana,	1.26	0.98	0.62	0.45	0.57	0.83	0.67
Iowa,	1.08	1.16	1.33	1.32	1.10	0.74	0.35
Kentucky,	1.08	1.11	1.35	1.40	1.29	2.01	2.13
Nebraska,	1.05	1.14	0.99	0.23	0.14	0.03	—
Georgia,	1.02	0.83	0.74	0.68	0.74	0.90	0.70
Texas,	1.02	0.81	0.75	0.39	0.27	0.35	0.11
Virginia,	1.00	0.95	0.94	0.96	0.91	2.69	2.90
Maine,	0.97	0.99	1.02	1.49	1.88	2.03	2.42
North Carolina,	0.96	0.75	0.43	0.37	0.45	0.88	0.90
Tennessee,	0.93	0.81	0.77	0.69	0.81	0.95	0.95
Washington,	0.87	0.62	0.45	0.06	0.07	0.07	—
New Hampshire,	0.83	0.94	0.92	1.38	1.68	1.99	2.28
Alabama,	0.74	0.63	0.55	0.25	0.31	0.56	0.44
Colorado,	0.68	0.78	0.45	0.26	0.07	—	—
West Virginia,	0.67	0.59	0.41	0.43	0.57	—	—
South Carolina,	0.54	0.47	0.34	0.31	0.23	0.46	0.69
Montana,	0.45	0.46	0.06	0.03	0.06	—	—
Vermont,	0.43	0.45	0.41	0.58	0.76	0.78	0.84
Mississippi,	0.39	0.30	0.20	0.14	0.19	0.35	0.29
Oregon,	0.38	0.32	0.44	0.20	0.16	0.16	0.22
Arkansas,	0.36	0.35	0.24	0.12	0.11	0.15	0.05
Florida,	0.34	0.30	0.19	0.10	0.11	0.13	0.07
Delaware,	0.28	0.36	0.40	0.39	0.40	0.52	0.46
Utah,	0.26	0.16	0.10	0.09	0.06	0.05	0.03
Arizona,	0.19	0.18	0.01	0.01	1—	—	—
District of Columbia,	0.12	0.14	0.42	0.22	0.22	0.29	0.26
Oklahoma,	0.11	0.05	1—	—	—	—	—
South Dakota,	0.09	0.08	0.06	0.04	1—	—	—
North Dakota,	0.07	0.05	0.05	—	—	—	—
Idaho,	0.06	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.02	—	—
Alaska,	0.05	0.04	1—	—	—	—	—
Indian Territory,	0.05	0.02	1—	—	—	—	—
New Mexico,	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.07	0.02
Wyoming,	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.02	—	—
Nevada,	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.04	0.37	—	—

¹ Less than one one-hundredth of one per cent.

Considering the year 1905, the total value of product of all the States and Territories was \$14,802,147,087. This amount has been considered as 100 per cent. On this basis, Massachusetts produced 7.59 per cent of all the goods made in the United States during that year. The percentage was 7.94 in 1900, 9.48 in 1890, 11.75 in 1880, 13.09 in 1870, 13.55 in 1860, and 15.48 in 1850.

CHANGES IN RATES OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN MASSACHUSETTS, 1906.

During the year ending September 30, 1906, the total number of changes in rates of wages and hours of labor in Massachusetts reported to this Bureau was 379. Some of these changes were in the nature both of increases in wages and decreases in hours, and the total number is therefore less than the sum of

the reports of changes classified severally as follows: 292 reports of increases in wages, 83 reports of decreases in hours, 44 reports of weekly half-holiday granted, and but one report of decrease in wages, making a total of 420 individual reports of changes. Detailed statements of the changes are given for each city and town in the Labor and Industrial Chronology for 1906.

The following table shows by groups of trades the changes as classified, and also the number of increases in wages granted by employers either voluntarily, on request of employees, or as result of strike:

Reports of Changes in Rates of Wages and Hours of Labor.

GROUPS OF TRADES.	Total Number of Reports	Number of Reports of In- creases in Wages	Number of Reports of De- creases in Hours	Number of Reports of Weekly Half- holiday	INCREASES IN WAGES GRANTED		
					Volun- tarily by Em- ployers	At Request of Em- ployees	As Result of Strike
Textiles,	¹ 173	166	6	—	64	95	7
Cotton mill operatives, . .	¹ 93	91	1	—	17	72	2
Woolen mill operatives, . .	73	69	4	—	45	22	2
Operatives in other textile mills, ²	7	6	1	—	2	1	3
Building trades,	52	46	18	7	14	27	5
Carpenters,	21	16	10	2	5	7	4
Painters,	11	11	3	—	3	8	—
Brick and tile layers, plas- terers, and masons, . . .	9	9	1	4	1	7	1
Plumbers,	3	3	1	—	—	3	—
Other workmen,	8	7	3	1	5	2	—
Transportation,	28	25	6	2	18	7	—
Street railway employees, .	13	13	3	—	11	2	—
Steam railroad employees, .	8	8	1	—	4	4	—
Teamsters and expressmen, .	5	3	1	2	2	1	—
Other transportation, . . .	2	1	1	—	1	—	—
Metals and machinery, .	27	14	9	9	5	7	2
Boots and shoes,	18	6	8	4	4	1	1
Printing,	14	—	14	—	—	—	—
Retail trade,	15	1	2	13	1	—	—
City, town, and govern- ment service,	13	10	3	2	5	5	—
Wooden goods,	10	6	5	—	2	4	—
Stone work,	7	5	2	2	1	2	2
Barbers,	5	2	3	3	—	2	—
Miscellaneous,	17	11	7	2	1	7	3
TOTALS,	¹ 379	292	83	44	115	157	20

¹ Includes one record of decrease in wages.

² Includes two flax mills, two cotton and silk mills, one cotton, woolen, and printing mill, and one cotton, bleaching, dyeing, and printing mill.

Attention is called to the fact that this table shows only the *number* of changes reported and does not in any sense whatever indicate the relative importance of the changes enumerated. The least important change reported affected as few as 20 workmen, while the most important change affected about 17,500 workpeople. No claim is made that the list of changes given is an exhaustive one, since undoubtedly many changes, affecting usually only small groups of workpeople, were not reported.

Of the 11 industries or classes of occupations noted in the above table the textile industry showed the largest number of changes reported, while the building trades and transportation ranked second and third, respectively. On the basis of numbers of employees affected, transportation would undoubtedly occupy second place were the actual figures available.

The month in which the changes in wages and hours of labor went into effect was given in 402 instances. These reports covered the year ending September 30, 1906, and from them it appears that 100 changes became effective in July, 58 in January, 55 in May, 41 in June, 25 in September, 23 in April, 22 in February, 20 in March, 15 each in August, October, and December, and 13 in November. Thus July, January, May, and June are the favored months, while October, November, and December are considered the least favored months for putting changes into effect.

In the following detailed consideration of the several industries and occupations, the order of treatment is determined by the number of reports of changes reported under each class which might not in each case be the order of relative importance on the basis of number of employees affected:

The textile industry. In this industry there were 114 reports of changes, of which 107 were increases in wages, six were decreases in hours, and one was a decrease in wages. The following table shows the number of cotton, woolen, and other textile mills which granted increases in wages, classified according to the percentage of increase granted:

CLASSIFICATION OF INCREASES IN WAGES.	Cotton Mills	Woolen Mills	Other Textile Mills	All Textile Mills
Under 5 per cent.	3	1	—	4
5 per cent, but under 10 per cent.	32	13	5	50
10 per cent, but under 15 per cent.	52	50	1	103
15 per cent, but under 20 per cent.	1	1	—	2
25 per cent.	—	1	—	1
Not stated.	3	3	—	6
TOTALS.	91	69	6	166

In the textile industry, as a whole, the increases in wages, with few exceptions, ranged between five and 15 per cent. In the woolen mills the increases were largely from 10 to 15 per cent, while those in the cotton mills were largely from five to 10 per cent. On the other hand, so far as the returns were available, there were many more operatives affected by increases in wages in the cotton mills than in the woolen mills. One hundred and sixteen reports of increases in wages gave the number of employees affected as 88,506. Of this number 74 cotton mills reported 62,849 operatives benefited; 37 woolen mills reported 18,773 employees benefited; and five other textile mills reported 6,884 employees benefited.

The most important increase in wages reported in the textile industry (indeed in all industries in Massachusetts) was the 10 per cent increase granted in July, 1906, by the Fall River Cotton Manufacturers' Association to about 25,000 cotton operatives in their employ; next in importance was the 10 per cent increase granted in January, 1906, by the American Woolen Company to the employees in all their mills, while third in importance may be mentioned the five per cent increase granted in July, 1906, to 17,544 employees in seven large cotton mills in Lowell. These increases in wages were but the more important manifestations of a general increase granted to employees in the textile industry not only in Massachusetts but throughout New England. It has been estimated that in Massachusetts alone 90,000 cotton-mill operatives have been benefited by the upward movement in the scale of wages. In the textile industry, as a whole, out of 166 increases granted, 64 were granted voluntarily, 95 on request, and seven as result of strikes. A large proportion of the voluntary increases were granted by the woolen manufacturers.

The building trades. The 52 changes reported in the building trades involved 46 increases in wages, 18 decreases in hours, and the granting of weekly half-holidays in seven instances. In 16 cases increases in wages were granted to carpenters, accompanied in six instances by the granting of the eight-hour day. These changes were largely brought about through the action of the carpenters, although actual strikes occurred in but four instances. The most noteworthy change was the increase in wages from \$3 to \$3.28 a day obtained without strike by about 6,000 members of 32 affiliated unions and branches of the Carpenters District Council of Boston and Vicinity. Other changes recorded affected not over 200 carpenters in any single instance, and the new daily rates of wages granted were usually \$3.28, \$3, or \$2.80 where these rates had not already been obtained. Along the North Shore there was a general movement for an increase to \$3.28 a day, which was granted after a short strike.

In 11 instances painters were granted increases in wages, accompanied in three cases by the granting of the eight-hour day. The new rates of wages granted ranged from \$2.80 to \$3.40 a day. In Everett, 10 master painters granted their employees an increase to \$2.80 a day.

In nine cases new rates of wages ranging from \$4 to \$4.80 a day were granted to brick and tile layers, plasterers, or stonemasons. The most noteworthy change was that from 55 to 60 cents an hour, with Saturday half-holiday during the entire year, granted by 118 firms in Boston to bricklayers and stonemasons employed by them.

In three instances plumbers were granted increases in wages on request, in one case to \$3.50 a day, with the eight-hour day, in one case from \$3.50 to \$3.75 a day, and in the third case from \$3.75 to \$4 a day.

Transportation. There were 28 reports of changes affecting employees engaged in transportation, involving 25 cases of increase in wages, six decreases in hours, and the granting of the Saturday half-holiday in two instances. On the basis of numbers of employees affected, the steam railroads of the State outranked the other transportation agencies as regards increases in wages. As stated in a former number of the Labor Bulletin,¹ the Boston and Maine Railroad increased the wages of 3,000 employees in February, 1906, adding \$140,000 to its pay-roll. Shortly afterwards the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad Company voluntarily advanced the wages of 6,825 men, making an annual increase in its pay-roll of \$200,000, while the Boston and Albany Railroad Company more recently made certain advances in the wages of about 200 men, involving an addition to the annual pay-roll of \$14,600. A reduction from 12 to 11 hours a day for employees in the freight service and 11 to 10 hours for employees in the passenger service, granted in January, 1906, by the Boston and Maine Railroad, affected about 20,000 employees throughout the system.

Increases in wages averaging about five per cent were granted by street railway companies in 13 instances, the increases being granted voluntarily by the companies in all but two instances. The most far reaching increase was that granted by the Boston Elevated Railway Company already described in the Labor Bulletin.¹ This increase, granted voluntarily by the company in November, 1906, affected about 5,300 men employed on the elevated and surface lines and ranged from 10 to 25 cents a day, adding about \$160,000 to the annual pay-roll.

The changes affecting teamsters and expressmen in three instances were

¹ Labor Bulletin No. 44, December, 1906, p. 519.

increases in wages averaging about one dollar a week, and in two instances the granting of half-holidays during the Summer months. Two general increases affecting expressmen throughout the country (not included in our table) were made by the American and the National Express Companies, in each case being an increase of 10 per cent in the wages of all employees whose wages did not exceed \$200 a month and had not been increased within 12 months. About 10,000 employees of the American Express Company were affected, and not less than \$600,000 was added to the annual pay-roll.

An increase in wages was granted by the Transatlantic steamship companies to longshoremen. This increase from 30 to 35 cents an hour on bulk cargo and from 40 to 50 cents an hour for night work affected about 1,800 employees in Boston.

Metals and machinery. In these branches of industry 27 changes were reported, involving 14 increases in wages, nine decreases in hours, and the granting of Saturday half-holidays in nine instances. The increases in wages granted to metal workers and machinists were largely from five to 10 per cent. The widespread movement on the part of the horseshoers to obtain the Saturday half-holiday during the months of June, July, and August resulted in success in seven instances. So far as the reports show, the largest number of workmen affected by any change reported was 750, that number of workmen having been granted a decrease in hours from 54 to 50 a week, without reduction in wages, by the Tubular Rivet & Stud Co. of Quincy.

Boots and shoes. The reports in this industry are somewhat deficient, owing to the fact that in a number of instances, particularly in Brockton, where new wage scales were adopted, it was impossible to determine whether the new scales involved increases or decreases, owing to the fact that the awards of the State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration, at whose instance the scales were adopted, did not specify the wages paid under the abandoned scale. Notwithstanding this deficiency in returns, there were 18 reports of changes, of which six were increases in wages, eight were decreases in hours, and in four cases the granting of the Saturday half-holiday (in three cases during the Summer months and in one case during the entire year). The changes were largely confined to Haverhill and Brockton. The increases in wages averaged about 10 per cent. In Haverhill, seven firms granted the nine-hour day to cutters in their employ without special change in wages.

Printing. An eight-hour movement was started by the International Typographical Union throughout the United States. Strikes occurred in several cities in Massachusetts as a result of the refusal of the employers to grant this reduction in the hours of labor. There were 14 reports of changes affecting printers which occurred in 13 cities and towns. In Brockton, 15 firms granted the shorter workday; in Worcester, 10 firms; and in Cambridge five firms. In seven cities and one town the local unions obtained the eight-hour day for all of their members.

Retail trade. The 15 changes affecting employees in the retail stores, except in two instances, consisted of the granting of the weekly half-holiday during the Summer months. In nine instances the half-holiday granted was on Wednesday, in three instances on Saturday, and in one instance on Thursday. In the grocery and provision trade Wednesday was the day chosen in preference to Saturday.

City, town, and government service. There were 13 changes reported under this class, involving 10 increases in wages, three decreases in hours, and two cases of the granting of the Saturday half-holiday. The increases

granted city and town employees ranged from 25 to 50 cents a day. A new schedule of wages adopted by the Navy Department, affecting the employees in the Navy Yard at Boston, granted increases of from five to 10 per cent in the wages of boilermakers, flange turners, saw filers, and hod carriers.

Wooden goods. The 10 changes reported under this industry involved six increases in wages and five decreases in hours. In five instances increases of 10 per cent were granted to coopers. About 225 wood carvers in Boston were reported to have obtained increases in wages from \$15 to \$17 a week.

Stone work. The seven changes affecting stone workers involved five increases in wages, two decreases in hours, and the granting of the Saturday half-holiday in two instances. The increases in wages ranged from 25 to 75 cents a day. The number of workmen affected by each of the several changes was not large.

Barbers. Increases in wages to \$13 a week were granted to barbers in Holyoke and Lynn. In Gardner and Greenfield the Thursday half-holiday was granted, and in Brockton shops were closed at 10.30 instead of at 11 P.M. on Saturday night.

Miscellaneous. Under this classification are included 11 reports of changes involving 11 increases in wages, seven decreases in hours, and two cases of the granting of the Saturday half-holiday. Specific mention should be made of the reduction in hours granted to bartenders by 37 concerns in Haverhill; the increase in wages from 65 to 70 cents per hundred pounds for tearing rags and reduction in hours from 60 to 57 a week granted to 370 rag workers employed by 15 junk dealers in Chelsea; and the granting of the Saturday half-holiday to carriage and wagon workers employed in 51 shops in Boston and Cambridge.

FREE EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.¹

Fifteen States, namely: California, Connecticut, Illinois, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Ohio, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin have free public employment offices in operation within their borders. Eleven of these States have State systems, maintaining 28 offices in 26 cities and five States have eight municipal offices in as many different cities.²

¹ The information regarding the free employment offices was obtained by correspondence with the Labor Commissioners of the different States and from the report of the investigation recently made by the Department of Commerce and Labor and published in Bulletin No. 68 of the United States Bureau of Labor.

² Free public employment offices are located in the following cities:

Baltimore, Md.,	(S)	Great Falls, Mont.,	(M)	Sacramento, Cal.,	(M)
Boston, Mass.,	(S)	Hartford, Ct.,	(S)	St. Joseph, Mo.,	(S)
Bridgeport, Ct.,	(S)	Kansas City, Mo.,	(S)	St. Louis, Mo.,	(S)
Butte, Mont.,	(S)	La Crosse, Wis.,	(S)	Seattle, Wash.,	(M)
Chicago, Ill. (3),	(S)	Lincoln, Neb.,	(S)	Spokane, Wash.,	(M)
Cincinnati, O.,	(S)	Los Angeles, Cal.,	(M)	Superior, Wis.,	(M)
Cleveland, O.,	(S)	Milwaukee, Wis.,	(S)	Tacoma, Wash.,	(M)
Columbus, O.,	(S)	Minneapolis, Minn.,	(S)	Toledo, O.,	(S)
Dayton, O.,	(S)	New Haven, Ct.,	(S)	Topeka, Kan.,	(S)
Detroit, Mich.,	(S)	Norwich, Ct.,	(S)	Waterbury, Ct.,	(S)
Duluth, Minn.,	(M)	Oshkosh, Wis.,	(S)	Wheeling, W. Va.,	(S)
Grand Rapids, Mich.,	(S)	Peoria, Ill.,	(S)		

[NOTE. The letter "S" indicates a State office, "M" a municipal office.]

There have been three distinct motives advanced in justification of the free public employment offices: First, the belief that State competition would drive the unscrupulous private agencies out of business or correct their abuses; second, the need of a public agency to furnish all possible assistance to the unemployed seeking employment; third, the economic motive, the saving of money to those for whom it is needful that money should be saved; the bringing together of the laborer in search of work and the employer seeking help; and, with the least possible expense, reducing unemployment to a minimum and supplying the demand for workers to the fullest extent.

While the motives for establishing the offices in the different States have not been the same, the results of their establishment have been chiefly economic.

Industrial conditions are necessarily different in each State, and the laws vary in order to meet these conditions. Thus in Ohio, a manufacturing State, we find offices in five large cities, the work of each well laid out, and funds provided for their maintenance. In agricultural States a kind of correspondence system was adopted which has generally proved a failure. In the States of the wheat belt, namely: Nebraska, Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, Minnesota, South Dakota, and Oklahoma, on January 5, 1904, the commissioners of labor met and organized The Western Association of State Free Employment Bureaus. This association planned to maintain permanent headquarters at the office of the Superintendent of the Missouri State Office at Kansas City, and voted that the Missouri office act as a sort of clearing house for the association; that each State Bureau report weekly to the Kansas City headquarters regarding the number of men needed in the respective States, and, as the harvest ends, report regarding the number of men available for transferring.

When the harvest season begins in Oklahoma, the Kansas City office will secure and ship all the men available into that territory to the points where it has been informed that they are needed. While the harvest continues in Oklahoma the Oklahoma bureau will have charge of the local shifting of the men, and as the harvest proceeds northward the Oklahoma bureau will ship all available men to points in Kansas and Missouri, such shipments to be governed by information furnished from headquarters. This plan will be in force throughout the entire territory as the harvest proceeds northward into the Dakotas and Minnesota.

It has been carefully estimated that should the harvest occur in these seven States at the same time there would be needed approximately 90,000 non-resident laborers, but since it occurs at different seasons, beginning in June in Oklahoma and ending in October in Dakota and Minnesota, about one-half of that number, or 45,000 men, will be necessary to harvest the small-grain crop.

The history of the free employment office movement has been one of progression and not retrogression, although the progress must be looked for as a whole rather than within any one of the several States. The individual States have shown but little inclination to modify their earlier enactments or to profit by the experience of others.

Chronological History of the State and Municipal Offices.

The first free public employment office in the United States was established in Ohio in 1890. Its inception was largely due to the desire of the labor unions of Cincinnati to correct the abuses of the unscrupulous private agencies. The difficulty of obtaining incriminating evidence against the offenders gave rise to the belief that State competition rather than direct

legislation, aimed against the offences of these agencies, was the only practical method of correcting the evil. After four years' experience it was discovered that competition, although diminishing to some extent, did not entirely remove the evil. In 1904, a law was passed providing for the regulation of private agencies. There are now five free employment offices in the State, located at Cleveland, Columbus, Cincinnati, Dayton, and Toledo.

The second office to be established was at Los Angeles, California, in January, 1893. Its organizers were labor union officials, who were determined to drive the unscrupulous private agencies out of business. The office was at first conducted by the labor unions, but was soon taken over by the city and county government.

The next office to be established was at Seattle, Washington, in April, 1894. This was the first municipal office opened in the United States. Here the reason for the establishment of a free public employment office was economic, arising from the side of the labor supply. The office at Seattle has doubtless been the most successful of any office in the United States.

The correspondence system of free employment on a small scale was attempted by the Commissioner of Labor in Iowa in 1894, following the failure of a bill to provide for free public employment offices to pass the Legislature. After the office had been in operation for five months it was abandoned, as the Commissioner was unable to secure work for a single applicant during that period.

An office on the correspondence system, modeled after the Iowa system, was established at Helena, Montana, in 1895, and remained in operation about two years. The slow and unsatisfactory method involved in the exchange of letters between the employers, the office, and the would-be employee was doomed to early failure. However, the short life of this office established the fact that there was a decided call for offices which would cover less territory more thoroughly, and in 1897 that act was repealed and a new act imposing no financial obligation upon the State but authorizing cities to establish such offices and to provide for their maintenance was enacted in lieu thereof. The Commissioner of Agriculture, Labor, and Industry is required to publish annually certain statistics relating to the work and expenditures of these offices. The two offices established under this act are virtually municipal offices. One of these offices is at Butte, the other at Great Falls. The cities of Helena and Kalispell have passed ordinances establishing such offices, but as no appropriations were made for their maintenance they have not been opened.

In July, 1895, the Commissioner of Labor of California, with the hope of diminishing the evils of the private agencies, but without any authorization from the Legislature, opened a free employment office in San Francisco. The office did a large and successful business, but its effect upon the private agencies was very slight. During the first year there were 18,920 applications for employment, — 14,251 for males and 4,669 for females, — and 5,845, — 3,314 males and 2,531 females, — or 30.89 per cent, of the applicants secured positions. The Legislature failed to grant the desired support and the office was discontinued. In 1903, a law was passed looking toward a better control of the private agencies.

New York City, as the principal port of entry for immigrants (76.7 per cent of those arriving in 1905 entered at New York), proved a favorable field for the development of the worst types of private agencies. Direct legislation was first tried to correct the evils, but no special provision was made for its enforcement. The Legislature then undertook to control the private

agencies by indirect means — State competition. A law was passed providing for free employment offices, to go into effect May 28, 1906. The lack of that financial support which is so necessary to the maintenance of an office in a city of such magnitude, was the chief cause for the failure of the offices created by this law. The Commissioner of Immigration at the port of New York testified that his office could not supply more than 20 per cent of the demands for help which were received from all over the United States, yet during the year ending September 30, 1905, the applications for work by men at the New York office were but 3,530, while the applications for male help were only 784. At the request of the Commissioner of Labor, in 1905, a committee of five men interested in charitable work investigated the work of the free employment office and reported as follows: (1) that the bureau is in effect an intelligence office for women domestic servants; (2) that the sum appropriated for the maintenance of the office bureau (\$5,000) is entirely inadequate to conduct a bureau which might have an effect upon the labor situation in the State in general; (3) that the energy represented by the expenditure of \$5,000 annually, or any larger sum, would at this time produce the best results by dealing with the problem of factory inspection and child labor; (4) that, for the reasons set forth above, the free employment bureau should be discontinued at the end of the present fiscal year. The law creating the office was repealed in 1906.

The law providing for the establishment of the free employment office on the correspondence plan in Nebraska was enacted in 1897, in response to the demands of the agricultural classes. The only duty performed by the office is in procuring harvest labor.

The Legislature of Illinois passed an act providing for the establishment of free employment offices for the purpose of lessening the evils of the private agencies. The act went into effect on July 1, 1899, but no appropriation was made for its support. The law remained a dead letter until 1903, when the Supreme Court of Illinois in the case of *Mathews v. The People*, 202 Ill. 389, declared the act unconstitutional, because of a section which aimed to prevent the offices from being of any service to an employer in case of a strike. A new act was passed omitting the disputed section, reducing the license fee of private agencies from \$200 to \$50 (\$25 in cities containing less than 50,000 population), and placing the supervision of private as well as public offices in the hands of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The Illinois law has proven to be of exceptional efficiency in the prevention of the abuses practised by private agencies. The enforcement of the law was placed in the hands of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, thus practically making the private agencies a part of the State system, and the Bureau has delegated this control to the local public offices. The Secretary of the Bureau of Labor Statistics says in his report for 1904:

Since the bureau obtained supervision over the private employment agencies they have been required to conduct their business in conformity with the letter of the statute. This work necessarily involves an examination at frequent intervals of the records kept by them, and of arrests and prosecutions instituted either to compel those operating without a license to comply with the law, or in the other numerous class of cases where the licensed agency had failed, whether purposely or not, to observe its provisions. For these and other causes 361 suits have been prosecuted and convictions in nearly every case obtained. Several licenses have been revoked where it appeared that the principal object in securing them was to use it as a shield in perpetrating fraud. Under the law, licensed employment agents

are permitted to charge a registration fee not to exceed \$2, which must be returned to the parties paying on failure to secure employment. By virtue of this provision, the licensed employment agencies of Chicago have been compelled to return registration fees amounting in the aggregate to \$3,522. It is needless to say that this sum of money was returned to the poor and unsuccessful applicants only after the threat of a vigorous criminal prosecution. Among the more salutary effects of the law's enforcement has been the elimination of the padrone system. The accomplishment of this result, if nothing else had been done, confirms the wise and beneficent purpose of the law, and fully justifies and rewards the expenditure of time and money in its enforcement.

Free employment offices were established in Missouri without the sanction of the law in 1898, the object being to combat the abuses practised by the private agencies. In 1899, a law was enacted providing for the establishment of offices in cities having a population of more than 100,000. Offices have been established in St. Louis, Kansas City, and St. Joseph.

A municipal free employment office was established at Superior, Wisconsin, on March 3, 1899. In 1901, a statute was passed authorizing the establishment of a State system, modeled upon the law of Illinois. There are four offices located at Superior, Milwaukee, LaCrosse, and Oshkosh.

The Connecticut statute, passed in 1901, was revised in 1902, and amended twice since the date of its enactment. Its aim was not to drive the private agency out of business but to correct its evils. The Commissioner of Labor recommended the establishment of offices in the State, in view of the gratifying results of the system in other States. Offices were located in Bridgeport, Hartford, New Haven, Norwich, and Waterbury. The details of the management of the public offices are left largely to the Commissioner of Labor, and, in consequence, the system of public offices is strongly centralized.

The Kansas system was begun in connection with the office of the Commissioner of Labor some time before the act of 1901, establishing a State Office at Topeka, was passed. The correspondence system was adopted and was fairly successful in supplying harvest labor. As the demand for labor was predominantly agricultural, the system was intended to be carried into the smaller as well as the larger cities, and city clerks were charged to act as agents. No appropriation was made for carrying out this program, and no proviso for enforcing the city clerks to perform their duty as agents of the system was made. At the present time practically none of the city clerks are responding to the provisions of the faulty law.

The West Virginia free employment office was opened by the Commissioner of Labor at Wheeling in 1900, without authorization by the State or municipality in an attempt to correct the abuses of the private agencies. In three months the private agencies were driven out of business. The Legislature enacted a law the following year sanctioning the office and providing for its support. The office has been very successful from the start and has proven its value as a labor exchange as well as a means of abolishing the evils of the private agencies.

The free employment office system of Minnesota owes its inception to the demand from the labor unions for an office to compete with the unscrupulous private agencies similar to the office in the adjacent city of Superior, Wisconsin. Accordingly, a municipal office was opened at Duluth in 1901. In 1905, a law was passed establishing a State system. The office was established at Minneapolis, and has been very successful since its opening on July 1, 1905.

The free employment office of Maryland was established in 1902, as the

result of a recommendation by the Chief of the Bureau of Industrial Statistics, who suggested a free employment office as a remedy for the evils of the private agencies. The office was established in Baltimore, but has not obtained control of the private agencies.

The second municipal free employment office in California was established at Sacramento, December 29, 1902, upon the demands of the labor unions.

The second municipal office in Washington was established at Tacoma, in June, 1904, as a result of the agitation of the labor unions against the private agencies.

The free employment offices of Michigan were established by a statute approved March 30, 1905, passed as a result of a recommendation by the Commissioner of Labor, who had been impressed with the utility of the service rendered by the bureaus of other States. Two offices have been established thus far, one at Grand Rapids and one at Detroit.

The third municipal free employment office to be established in Washington was opened in Spokane in January, 1905, chiefly to supply a labor exchange.

The free employment office system of Massachusetts was provided for by a statute approved May 31, 1906, and on December 3 an office was opened in Boston.

Colorado and Iowa have the establishment of offices under consideration.

Statistical Summary.

In the following summary we present the more important facts regarding the 37 free employment offices covered by the report, the arrangement of the States being alphabetical, and of the several offices in each State in order of relative importance.

The subject is one which does not admit of such statistical definiteness in the statement of results as might be desired. The several employment offices have statistics in abundance to offer, but these can not be taken as absolutely correct, owing to the fact that people will not always report as to employment when the service is free. Mere numbers, although gratifying to those who wish the movement success, are of less importance than efficiency in placing men and women where they can do the best work. A low percentage of applications filled may be a favorable rather than an unfavorable comment upon the work of an office, since it may mean a corresponding carefulness on the part of the superintendent in rejecting unfit applicants.

California. No legislation for the establishment of public employment offices has been adopted by the State of California, but two of its cities—Los Angeles and Sacramento—maintain free municipal employment offices.

The Los Angeles office has made no reply to requests by this Bureau for statistics. During the year ending November 30, 1905, it secured positions for 2,034 applicants. A unique feature of this office is that the nominal sum of 25 cents is charged for each position actually filled. The per capita cost of positions filled was 44.6 cents.

The report of the Free Labor Bureau of Sacramento states that 11,799 applications for help were received during 1906, 10,710 being for males and 1,089 for females; 10,978 applications for work were received, 10,254 from males and 724 from females; and 10,343 positions were filled, 9,803 being for males and 540 for females. The positions filled represented 94.22 per cent of the applications for situations. Skilled workers formed 15 per cent of the applicants for work, while of the persons for whom positions were found 10 per cent were skilled.

The total cost of maintaining the free employment bureau during 1906 was \$1,773, and the per capita cost of positions filled was a fraction more than 17 cents. When the Free Labor Bureau was established it cost the taxpayers about one and one-quarter mills apiece, but, owing to increased property valuation in the city, the cost is at present about one-half of one mill to each taxpayer.

The city labor commissioner in his report states that the work of the office in 1906 shows a very satisfactory advance over the work of the first three years following its establishment, and that this is the result chiefly of the policy of advertising thoroughly throughout the State and of giving careful attention to both employers and employees. He states further that, while the benefits of the office have been duly appreciated by employers and employees, much better results could be obtained "if reasonable appropriations could be made for competent office help, giving the superintendent or commissioner all his time for outside work if necessary."

Connecticut. A summary of the work of the five free employment offices, maintained by the State, at Hartford, New Haven, Bridgeport, Waterbury, and Norwich, shows that during 1906 the number of applications for help received by them aggregated 4,116 for males and 7,016 for females, a total of 11,132; applications for situations, 5,059 from males and 6,790 from females, a total of 11,849; positions filled, 3,776 for males and 5,580 for females, a total of 9,356. The positions filled equalled 78.96 per cent of the applications for situations. About 25 per cent of the applicants for employment were skilled workers, and about 20 per cent of the persons for whom positions were found were skilled.

The total cost of maintaining free employment offices, in 1906, amounted to \$8,848, the per capita cost of positions filled being 95 cents.

In Hartford, in 1905, a total of 2,597 positions were filled by the office. Of these, 1,150 were for males, of whom 575 were farm hands, or more strictly speaking "harvest hands," in distinction from those who are engaged in all-round farm work. These laborers are classed as "unskilled," but they differ from the ordinary unskilled laborers in that their work is usually of longer duration.

Although New Haven has a population of over 100,000, and 30,000 in excess of Hartford, the work of its office is less than half that of Hartford, New Haven being less active industrially. The furnishing of domestics constitutes the larger part of the work of the New Haven office. The women placed in positions in 1905 outnumbered the men more than two to one.

The Bridgeport office surpasses the others in satisfying the demand for domestics, shop hands, waitresses, cooks, and female help in general, particularly when factory work is scarce. There is never a scarcity of unskilled laborers. Of the positions filled, 75 per cent are by unskilled laborers.

In 1905, the Waterbury office secured positions for 439 men and 1,212 women. Of the men, the largest numbers were shop hands, farm hands, and drivers; and of the women the largest numbers were domestics and shop hands. This office, it is stated, "supplies a larger per cent of skilled labor than any other in the State."

Situations were secured in 1905 by the Norwich office for 414 persons (252 females and 162 males). The expenses of this office and of the Waterbury office were out of proportion to those of the offices in the three larger cities.

The Commissioner of Labor states that in his judgment "the management of these bureaus by the State merits and receives public approval. It is the aim of the department to improve the service, and it has succeeded in a marked degree, for the class of employees placed in situations through the efforts of the superintendents of the offices is eminently higher each year."

Illinois. The State of Illinois maintains three free employment offices in Chicago and one in Peoria. During the year ending September 30, 1906, the cost

of maintaining these four offices amounted to \$31,559, and the per capita cost of filling positions through them was 60 cents. Skilled workers filed 10.1 per cent of the applications for employment and unskilled workers 89.9 per cent, while, of the persons for whom positions were found, 8.35 per cent were skilled and 91.65 per cent were unskilled workers.

The number of applications for help received by the four offices, during the year under consideration, aggregated 42,077 for males and 18,821 for females, a total of 60,898. Applications for situations aggregated 42,023 from males and 15,466 from females, a total of 57,489. The positions filled numbered 39,056 for males and 13,378 for females, making a total of 52,434, and representing 91.21 per cent of the applications for situations.

The four offices in the State advertise extensively in the daily papers and in other ways, annual funds of \$400 for each of the Chicago offices and \$300 for the Peoria office being provided.

The offices in Chicago are located respectively on the north, west, and south sides of the city, the west side office being about one-half mile from a central point in the city and the other two about one mile each from the same point. Applicants may register in any one or all three of the offices. For this reason a certain duplication in registration is claimed, and a differentiation in service is called for in order to avoid this difficulty.

It is stated that the greater part of the work furnished consists of short jobs, that the offices deal largely with unskilled labor, and that a large percentage of the applicants are "floaters," yet many worthy persons have sought permanent employment.

In Peoria (having a population of over 56,000) the industrial conditions are generally favorable to those seeking employment in unskilled labor, and domestics are in great demand. The Peoria office requires a notice, both from employer and employee, whenever work has been secured. The local reputation of the office is good, and its service is highly appreciated.

The Secretary of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Illinois comments, as follows, on the work of the offices:

Since the establishment of our employment offices in 1899 many of the pernicious practices of the private agencies have been destroyed. Our laws relating thereto are quite rigid, and they are strictly enforced, the effect of which is shown in the improved character of such agencies. . . . The work of our offices is yearly increasing and a better class of applicants is securing satisfactory employment. A new feature in connection with this work is that of obtaining employment for paroled convicts. . . . The employers, of course, are fully advised in advance regarding that class of labor, and the State asks their co-operation to the end that they may be given an opportunity to earn an honest living. Considering the difficulties presented in a problem of the kind, our efforts so far have been very successful.

Kansas. The Free Employment Office was established principally for the purpose of supplying harvest hands to the farmers of the wheat belt.

The main office at Topeka may be credited with the largest share of the work. Through its agents and by communication with employment offices outside of the State, particularly the Missouri offices, and by communication also with railroad officials and other organizations the work is extended. The help supplied is largely agricultural. Last season 60 public spirited citizens of the wheat counties acted as agents of the Bureau in ascertaining the number of men needed and the towns to which they should be sent. Forty counties called for 20,866 extra men to assist in the harvest. This demand was only partially supplied, the two Missouri offices at Kansas City and St. Joseph furnishing 1,982 and the Kansas office 3,684, making a total of 5,666. According to the figures for 1906, positions were found for 3,684 harvest hands and 1,243 positions for other applicants (males and females). Do-

mestic service, with about 106 positions filled, comprised about 88 per cent of the female positions filled.

A large number of men were procured by the employers, however, who are not included in these figures. The discrepancy between the number furnished by the office and the total called for is accounted for by the fact that the railroad rate was granted over a wider area than ever before; that those who went from small stations did not report to the office at Topeka; and that there was no means of ascertaining how many went to the harvest in wagons or from interior towns where the rate did not apply.

Maryland. The fourth annual report of the work of the State Free Employment Agency, located at Baltimore, shows that, during the year 1906, the agency received 459 applications for male help and 62 for female help, making a total of 521 applications for help, against 263 received in 1905. The applications for employment numbered 620 from males and 27 from females, a total of 647, against 451 in 1905. During the year, 141 positions were filled, of which 129 were for males and 12 for females. The number of positions filled equalled 21.79 per cent of the number of applications for situations. Of the 647 applicants for work, 119, or about 18 per cent, were skilled workmen. Of the persons for whom work was found, 113 were laborers, 12 were farm hands, and seven were female cooks, the work of the remaining nine representing six branches of occupation.

Massachusetts.¹ During the one hundred fifty-one working days from December 3, 1906, the date of establishment of the office, to May 31, 1907, the State Free Employment Office at Boston registered 31,744 applicants for employment, 23,479 being males and 8,265 females. It is impossible to state the full number of positions filled, for the reason that in the majority of cases the office received no notice from the employers as to whether the persons recommended to them were given employment. Positions are known to have been secured during the period, however, for 6,815 persons, of whom 4,103 were males and 2,712 females. The employers' applications numbered 12,672, representing 21,794 persons. In response to these calls 21,541 applicants were sent, or 98.84 per cent.

Michigan. The Michigan Free Employment Bureau, authorized by Act 37 of the Public Acts of 1905, has offices in operation at Detroit and Grand Rapids, established in June, 1905.

A report of the work of these offices during the first 18 months after their establishment gives the following figures:

Detroit Office: Applicants for work: Male, 11,254; female, 1,731; total, 12,985. Applications for help: Male, 13,240; female, 2,680; total, 15,920. Positions filled: Males, 11,081; females, 1,710; total, 12,791, or 98.51 per cent of the applications for work.

Grand Rapids Office: Applicants for work: Male, 3,301; female, 1,679; total, 4,980. Applications for help: Male, 3,038; female, 1,882; total, 4,920. Positions filled: Males, 2,289; females, 1,340; total, 3,629, or 72.87 per cent of the applications for work.

An aggregate of the returns for the two offices shows that, during the 18 months under consideration, 14,555 applications for work were made by males and 3,410 by females, a total of 17,965, or an average of 998 applications for work each month. The applications for male help numbered 16,278 and for female help 4,562, making a total of 20,840, or an average of 1,158 each month. The positions secured numbered 13,370 for males and 3,050 for females, giving a total of 16,420

¹ A complete account of the Massachusetts State Free Employment Office appeared in Labor Bulletin No. 46, p. 68. See, also, Labor Bulletins Nos. 47, 48, and 49. An account of the conditions of unemployment will be found in an article entitled "Unemployment in Massachusetts" in Labor Bulletin No. 46, p. 61.

and a monthly average of 912. The total number of positions secured was 91.40 per cent of the number of applications for situations.

In reviewing the work of the offices the Commissioner of Labor says: "The results are most gratifying, especially as the funds for advertising were so limited. With a reasonable appropriation for the work, so that its benefits can be extended to other large labor centers, allowing judicious advertising, the work of the free employment offices . . . will greatly benefit both employers and employees."

The offices were established largely as an experiment, with no specific provision for maintenance, and with but a meagre fund available from which to pay current expenses, but the authorities report that under the circumstances the results accomplished seem to have fully justified the experiment.

Minnesota. The State Free Employment Bureau of Minnesota was established at Minneapolis under the provisions of a law passed April 19, 1905. During the period from June 1, 1905, to August 1, 1906, the bureau received 11,675 applications for help, of which 6,846 were for males and 4,811 for females; and filled 11,134 positions, 6,636 of the persons for whom work was found being males and 4,498 females. About 20 per cent of the applicants for work were considered skilled workmen. The number of applications for situations and the number of positions filled are reported as the same, for the reason that no record is kept of applicants for work unless positions are found for them. The total cost of maintaining the bureau from June 1, 1905, to August 1, 1906, was about \$2,250. Compared with the other offices of its kind, the State free employment office at Minneapolis seems to enjoy the public confidence and respect to a rather unusual degree.

In Duluth a free employment office is maintained at the expense of the city. This municipal office obtained positions for 6,359 applicants in 1905, and the cost of maintenance of the office was \$1,499.88, an average cost of 23.6 cents for each position secured. Of the 6,359 positions secured, 2,871 were outside of the city. The superintendent states that perhaps 70 per cent of the positions secured for men are for unskilled labor. The labor supply and demand are fairly equal numerically the year round, although the nature of the work to be done varies with the season.

Missouri. A summary of the work done by the State free employment offices at St. Louis, Kansas City, and St. Joseph, during the year ending September 30, 1906, shows an aggregate of 17,064 applications for positions, 15,034 being from males and 2,030 from females; 18,180 applications for help, 14,576 being for males and 3,604 for females; and 10,760 positions filled, 9,541 being for males and 1,219 for females, the number of positions filled being 63.06 per cent of the number of applications for positions.

The St. Louis office meets with some opposition in conducting its work, particularly in advertising, as the newspapers charge excessive rates, or refuse to accept such matter, claiming that it is in competition with its own advertising matter. The unions here, as elsewhere, prefer to act through their own business agents. Nevertheless, the local reputation of this office is good.

The Kansas City office was opened January 15, 1900, and it has proved very efficient. By means of a card system, an improved letter file, and the issuance of dated tickets to applicants the superintendent has greatly simplified the office work. Geographically it is most fortunately located, being the central distributing point in the Southwest. In 1905, 2,098 men were sent to the Kansas harvest fields by this office.

The office in St. Joseph was opened January 1, 1901. Its management has recently been changed and its work has trebled in the past year. The supply of domestic help was quite inadequate to the demand. Skilled labor is pretty thoroughly organized, only about 10 per cent of the applicants being of this class.

Montana. The office at Butte was opened January 23, 1902. The employment agent is appointed by the Mayor. The city is distinctively a mining town. The mine operators do not consult the office, and consequently the chief function of the office consists in placing some of the surplus labor of the city in surrounding towns. Most of the calls from out of town are for men for ranching, railroad labor, etc. (mostly long jobs), while over 75 per cent of the work in town is for short jobs. In 1906, there were 10,379 applications for help, 12,798 applications for situations (5,979 males and 6,819 females), and 8,350 positions filled; 65.24 per cent of applicants for situations secured employment and 80.45 per cent of the applicants for help secured employees.

Great Falls has a population of about 15,000. The office was established in November, 1905, and is combined with that of the city weigher who receives no additional salary, and there is practically no additional cost. In the year ending November 30, 1906, there were 1,111 applications for employment, 793 applications for help, and positions were found for 450 persons (350 males and 100 females).

The male positions filled by both offices during the year ending November 30, 1906, included 2,313 laborers, miners, section men, etc., and 1,749 ranch hands, hay makers, etc., and 607 miscellaneous employments. As to the class of female help supplied, 2,809 positions were found in domestic service and private families, 523 in hotel and restaurant help, in addition to 742 miscellaneous employments. The per capita cost of positions filled was 17.5 cents.

Nebraska. The only duty performed by this bureau is in procuring harvest hands in connection with the Western Association of State Free Employment Bureaus. In 1905, the State Bureau of Labor sent 3,645 harvest hands to positions in 72 towns in 36 counties. The Deputy Commissioner says regarding the Nebraska office: "As the State employment office in this State is located in the capitol building, an impractical place, together with the fact that the number of employees of the Bureau is so small that their entire time and attention are demanded by the many other fields of duty encompassed by the law governing the office, the employment bureau is necessarily neglected. The conditions in the city of Lincoln are such that there is no great demand for employment offices. It would therefore be of no benefit to you for me to supply a report concerning the work of the employment bureau of this department."

New York. The Free Employment Bureau of the Department of Labor, formerly maintained in New York City, was abolished May 1, 1906, and its force transferred to other bureaus of the Department, pursuant to Chapter 158 of the Laws of 1906, which repealed Article III of the Labor Law. That Article provided for free public employment bureaus in all cities of the first class, but no appropriation was ever made for any other than the one in New York City.

During the seven months from October 1, 1905, to April 30, 1906, the bureau received 2,790 applications for situations, of which 1,440 were from males and 1,350 from females; and 2,255 applications for help, 571 being for males and 1,684 for females. The situations secured numbered 433 for males and 1,244 for females, giving a total of 1,677, or 60.11 per cent of the number of applications for situations. More than two-thirds (857) of the female help for whom work was found were classified as day workers or hotel and office cleaners.

Ohio. The five free public employment offices of the State of Ohio, located at Cleveland, Columbus, Cincinnati, Dayton, and Toledo, received, during the year 1906, 28,036 applications for situations, — 17,072 males and 10,964 females, — and positions were found for 25,257, or 90.09 per cent; 40,960 applications for help, of which 24,264 were for males and 16,696 for females. Positions were procured for 15,347 males and 9,910 females. During the entire period from the establishment of the offices in 1890 to the close of the year 1906 the number of positions filled aggre-

gated 271,410, being 61.5 per cent of the number of applications filed by workpeople and 67.1 per cent of those filed by employers.

In the following table we present a summary of the business done at the five offices during the years 1905 and 1906, the first year the offices were in operation (1890), and the average for the 17 years, 1890-1906.

CLASSIFICATION.	1906	1905	First Year Offices were in Operation— 1890	Annual Average for 17 Years— 1890-1906
Situations wanted,	28,036	24,132	20,145	25,949
Males,	17,072	13,794	14,538	14,447
Females,	10,964	10,338	5,607	11,502
Help wanted,	40,960	30,508	18,154	23,775
Males,	24,264	14,440	11,453	9,385
Females,	16,696	16,068	6,701	14,390
Positions secured,	25,257	21,203	8,988	15,965
Males,	15,347	12,011	5,575	6,842
Females,	9,910	9,192	3,413	9,123
Percentage of applications:				
For situations,	90.09	87.86	44.62	61.52
For help,	61.66	69.50	49.51	67.15

Cleveland has had an overstocked labor market. The strong local demand has served as a stronger attraction to outside labor than the local market has justified, and consequently employers have had no trouble in securing all the help wanted without recourse to the public employment office. There are nine licensed private agencies, besides numerous agencies conducted for charitable purposes.

In Columbus the labor demand and supply are fairly equal, but there is a strong demand for skilled labor of various kinds, and the office has not always been able to furnish it.

In Cincinnati there is not a surplus of labor, in fact a shortage is more common, particularly of domestics.

Dayton is a thriving manufacturing city in the midst of an agricultural region. Although the population is only one-fourth that of Columbus, the office shows a larger amount of business done.

In Toledo the supply of unskilled labor is somewhat in excess of the demand, but, in general, a larger percentage of the total applications for employment (in 1906) were filled than those for help, indicating that it was easier to find work than to find help.

The following summary shows the business done at each of the five offices during the year 1906:

CITIES.	Population	APPLICATIONS FOR		Positions Secured	Percentage of Positions Secured of Applications for Employment	Percentage of Employees Secured of Applications for Help
		Employ- ment	Help			
Cleveland,	381,768	6,955	12,533	6,597	94.85	52.64
Columbus,	125,560	5,191	7,654	4,422	85.19	57.77
Cincinnati,	325,902	7,190	7,200	6,479	90.11	89.99
Dayton,	85,333	6,040	10,217	5,610	92.88	54.91
Toledo,	131,822	2,660	3,356	2,149	80.79	64.03
TOTALS,	1,050,385	28,036	40,960	25,257	90.10	61.67

Washington. There is no State free employment office in Washington, but public employment offices are maintained at the expense of the municipalities of Seattle, Tacoma, and Spokane.

In respect to number of positions secured the office at Seattle outranks any other office in the United States. The Labor Commissioner of Seattle in his report for 1905-06 says: "It has been a success to a degree beyond the hopes of its promoters." During 1905 the office secured positions for 17,763 males and 3,202 females, making a total of 20,965 positions secured, and in addition 802 hop pickers were supplied with work. The monthly average of positions secured was 1,814. The total expense of maintaining the office was \$1,314, and the per capita cost of filling positions was 6.03 cents. For the nine months ending September 30, 1906, the number of positions supplied through the Public Employment Office of Seattle was 30,172, including work for 2,490 hop pickers.

The office at Tacoma was established June 26, 1904. During the period from August 1, 1905, to September 30, 1906, the office filled 8,255 positions, 853 of the persons for whom work was found being hop pickers for whom no record as to sex is given in the report. Of the remaining 7,402 persons, 6,164 were men and 1,238 women. The clerk of the Tacoma office reports that during August and September of both 1905 and 1906 he was unable to supply the demand for male help and that at no time has he been able to supply the demand for female help.

The free employment office at Spokane was established January 11, 1905, and, during its first year of activity, secured positions for 2,337 persons of whom 1,930 were men and 407 women. In the three months from January 11 to April 11, 1906, work was found for 491 men and 71 women, making a total of 562 for the three months, and an aggregate of 2,899 for the 15 months following its establishment.

A proposal has been made to have public employment offices established in Washington under State control, but it is felt by the authorities that, for the present at least, the excellent work done by the municipal bureaus leaves little necessity for the State to enter this field.

West Virginia. During the year 1906, the Free Public Employment Bureau of West Virginia, located at Wheeling, received 1,294 applications for help (801 males and 493 females) and 2,535 applications for situations (2,015 from males and 520 from females). The positions filled numbered 1,029, including 651 for males and 378 for females, and represented 40.59 per cent of the applications for work. It was estimated that about 40 per cent of the persons for whom employment was secured were skilled workmen. The cost of maintaining the office for the year was \$800, and the per capita cost of positions filled was 77 cents.

Wisconsin. The State free employment offices of Wisconsin are located at Milwaukee, Superior, La Crosse, and Oshkosh. During the year ending June 30, 1906, these four offices received 14,033 applications for male help and 4,273 applications for female help, giving a total of 18,306 applications for help. The positions filled numbered 13,865 for males and 3,467 for females, a total of 17,332. About 15 per cent of the persons for whom these positions were secured were skilled workers. No record is kept of applications for situations unless work is found for the applicants, and the number of applications for situations is therefore reported as equal to the number of positions filled.

The annual cost of maintaining the free employment offices is \$5,500, and the per capita cost of positions filled during the year under consideration was 31.7 cents.

The office at Milwaukee is the most important one in the State. It bears a good local reputation and works in harmony with charitable organizations and trade unions.

The Superior office was under municipal control from March 3, 1899, to July 5, 1901, on which latter date it came under State control. There is a strong demand for unskilled labor, but the employment is usually of some duration. The ratio be-

tween the positions for skilled and unskilled labor is about 1 in 30 for males and 1 in 12 for females.

The office at La Crosse was opened July 1, 1904. The labor demand is mainly for lumbermen and contract laborers on streets and railways. There are more male applicants than positions offered, and the reverse is true in the case of women, so far as domestic help is concerned.

The office at Oshkosh was opened in November, 1904, and may still be regarded as an experiment.

A general view of the data relative to State and municipal free employment offices in the United States is given in the following table.

Operations of Free Employment Offices in the United States.

LOCATION.	Offices in Operation	Applications for Help	Applications for Situations	Positions Filled ¹	Percentages — Positions Filled of Applications for Situations	Per Capita Cost of Positions Filled
California,	2	² 11,799	² 10,978	² 10,343	² 94.22	² \$0.17
Connecticut,	5	11,132	11,849	9,356	78.96	.95
Illinois,	4	60,898	57,489	52,434	91.21	.60
Kansas,	³ 1	1,304	4,202	4,827	—	—
Maryland,	1	521	647	141	21.79	—
Massachusetts,	1	21,794	31,744	21,541	67.86	.53
Michigan,	2	20,840	17,965	16,420	91.40	—
Minnesota,	2	⁴ 11,675	⁴ 11,134	⁴ 11,134	⁴ 100.00	—
Missouri,	3	18,180	17,064	10,760	63.06	—
Montana,	2	—	—	—	—	—
Nebraska,	1	—	—	—	—	—
New York,	⁵ 1	2,255	2,790	1,677	60.11	—
Ohio,	5	40,960	28,036	25,257	90.09	.566
Washington,	3	—	—	45,781	—	—
Seattle,	1	—	—	35,189	—	.0603
Tacoma,	1	—	—	8,255	—	—
Spokane,	1	—	—	2,337	—	—
West Virginia,	1	1,294	2,535	1,029	40.59	.77
Wisconsin,	4	18,306	17,332	17,332	100.00	.317

¹ The figures under positions filled are not always comparable; in some cases they may mean that positions are considered filled whenever an employee is sent to a position, and in others, they may mean that employers have notified the employment office that they have employed the person the office has sent.

² Office at Sacramento. ³ Has 10 agencies. ⁴ Office at Minneapolis. ⁵ Abolished May 1, 1906.

ESTIMATED POPULATION OF MASSACHUSETTS CITIES, 1906-1910.

The method of estimating the population between 1905 and 1910 may be termed the "geometrical method." In the accompanying table is given the actual population for the census years 1895 and 1905, together with the yearly rate of increase for each of the cities, followed by the estimated population from 1906 to 1910 inclusive.

The cities of Gloucester and Marlborough are omitted from this table owing to the fact that between 1895 and 1905 a decrease was shown in population.

Estimated Population of Massachusetts Cities.

CITIES.	ACTUAL POPULATION		Yearly Rate of Increase	ESTIMATED POPULATION				
	1895	1905		1906	1907	1908	1909	1910
Beverly,	11,806	15,223	2.57	15,614	16,015	16,427	16,849	17,282
Boston,	496,920	595,380	1.82	606,216	617,249	628,483	639,921	651,568
Brookton,	33,165	47,794	3.72	49,572	51,416	53,329	55,313	57,371
Cambridge,	81,643	97,434	1.78	99,168	100,933	102,730	104,559	106,420
Chelsea,	31,264	37,289	1.78	37,953	38,629	39,317	40,017	40,729
Chicopee,	16,420	20,191	2.09	20,613	21,044	21,484	21,933	22,391
Everett,	18,573	29,111	4.59	30,447	31,845	33,307	34,836	36,435
Fall River,	89,203	105,762	1.72	107,581	109,431	111,313	113,228	115,176
Fitchburg,	26,409	33,021	2.26	33,767	34,530	35,310	36,108	36,924
Haverhill,	34,945	37,830	0.797	38,132	38,436	38,742	39,051	39,362
Holyoke,	40,322	49,934	2.16	51,013	52,115	53,241	54,391	55,566
Lawrence,	52,164	70,050	2.99	72,144	74,301	76,523	78,811	81,167
Lowell,	84,367	94,889	1.182	96,011	97,146	98,294	99,456	100,632
Lynn,	62,354	77,042	2.14	78,691	80,375	82,095	83,852	85,646
Malden,	29,708	38,037	2.50	38,988	39,963	40,962	41,986	43,036
Medford,	14,474	19,686	3.12	20,300	20,933	21,586	22,259	22,953
Melrose,	11,065	14,295	1.79	14,551	14,811	15,076	15,346	15,621
New Bedford,	55,251	74,362	3.01	76,600	78,906	81,281	83,728	86,248
Newburyport,	14,552	14,675	0.085	14,687	14,699	14,711	14,724	14,737
Newton,	27,590	36,827	2.93	37,906	39,017	40,160	41,337	42,548
North Adams,	19,135	22,150	1.47	22,476	22,806	23,141	23,481	23,826
Northampton,	16,746	19,957	1.77	20,310	20,669	21,035	21,407	21,786
Pittsfield,	20,461	25,001	2.02	25,506	26,021	26,547	27,083	27,630
Quincy,	20,712	28,076	3.09	28,944	29,838	30,760	31,710	32,690
Salem,	34,473	37,627	0.88	37,958	38,292	38,629	38,969	39,312
Somerville,	52,200	69,272	2.87	71,260	73,305	75,409	77,573	79,799
Springfield,	51,522	73,540	3.62	76,202	78,961	81,819	84,781	87,850
Taunton,	27,115	30,967	1.34	31,382	31,803	32,220	32,661	33,099
Waltham,	20,876	26,282	2.33	26,894	27,521	28,162	28,818	29,489
Woburn,	14,178	14,402	0.16	14,425	14,448	14,471	14,494	14,517
Worcester,	98,767	128,135	2.64	131,518	134,990	138,554	142,212	145,966

¹ At a special census taken April 13, 1907, the population was 76,616.

² At a special census taken April 10, 1906, the population was 79,078.

³ At a special census taken April 10, 1906, the population was 75,968.

TRADE UNIONS IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

The *Reichs-Arbeitsblatt* for March, 1907, issued by the *Kaiserliches Statistische Amt*, Berlin, contains a review of the third International Report on Trade Unions, recently published by the International Secretary of the national central trade unions. The information given relates to the year 1905 and covers 12 countries. The following tables show the number of organizations for which returns were received by the Secretary and the membership of these organizations.

COUNTRIES.	CENTRAL UNIONS				LOCAL UNIONS			
	Number	Membership			Number	Membership		
		Males	Females	Totals		Males	Females	Totals
Germany,	64	1,270,392	74,411	1,344,803	—	—	—	—
Great Britain,	60	471,942	14,000	485,942	45	14,357	1,000	15,357
Austria,	133	279,597	27,002	306,599	—	—	—	—
Sweden,	30	79,780	6,747	86,527	2	108	—	108
Denmark,	50	64,571	6,276	70,847	12	617	—	617
Hungary,	21	63,709	2,478	66,187	18	4,450	536	4,986
Switzerland,	32	45,000	3,500	48,500	3	200	—	200
Spain,	9	—	—	21,589	116	—	—	14,968
Belgium,	6	—	—	18,725	54	—	—	15,459
Norway,	12	15,446	270	15,716	13	398	108	506
Servia,	21	4,665	409	5,074	—	—	—	—
Bulgaria,	1	180	—	180	43	1,736	54	1,790
TOTALS,	439	—	—	2,470,689	306	—	—	53,991

COUNTRIES.	Aggregate Number of Unions	AGGREGATE MEMBERSHIP		
		Males	Females	Totals
Germany,	64	1,270,392	74,411	1,344,803
Great Britain,	105	486,299	15,000	501,299
Austria,	133	279,597	27,002	306,599
Sweden,	32	79,888	6,747	86,635
Denmark,	62	65,188	6,276	71,464
Hungary,	39	68,159	3,014	71,173
Switzerland,	35	45,200	3,500	48,700
Spain,	125	—	—	36,557
Belgium,	60	—	—	34,184
Norway,	25	15,844	378	16,222
Servia,	21	4,665	409	5,074
Bulgaria,	44	1,916	54	1,970
TOTALS,	745	—	—	2,524,680

The greatest absolute increase in membership in 1905 over 1903, the year for which the first international report was issued, was made in Germany where the membership of the organizations reported upon increased by 457,105 in the two years. The greatest percental increase (103 per cent) was made in Norway. Only one country — Spain — showed a falling off in trade union membership, the decrease being 36 per cent.

No financial reports were submitted for unions in Belgium, Spain, and Switzerland. Among the other nine countries, Germany led in both receipts and expenditures for the year, the amounts being respectively 27,812,257 marks (\$6,619,317) and 25,024,234 marks (\$5,955,768), followed by Great Britain with receipts of 23,098,492 marks (\$5,497,441) and expenditures of 21,662,250 marks (\$5,155,616). The aggregate receipts of unions in the nine countries during 1905 were 62,544,941 marks (\$14,885,696), and the aggregate expenditures, 57,487,211 marks (\$13,681,956). Of the latter sum, 17,725,694 marks (\$4,218,715) were expended in support of strikes and 23,017,196 marks (\$5,478,093) in benefits to members on account of sickness, accidents, deaths, unemployment, etc., the benefits for unemployed members amounting to 10,283,544 marks (\$2,435,583), or 44.46 per cent of the total amount of benefits. Other expenses of the unions covered the costs of administration, union publications and libraries, law suits, agitations, etc. German unions expended nearly two and one-half million dollars in support of strikes during 1905.

QUARTERLY RECORD OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.

JANUARY, FEBRUARY, AND MARCH, 1907.

During the first three months of 1907 there were 48 strikes, 11 in January, 15 in February, and 22 in March, as compared with 59 during the same months in 1906; 42 in 1905; 42 in 1904; and 60 in 1903.

By the 48 disputes, 4,928 employees were directly and 872 employees indirectly affected, and these figures when added to the number of employees affected by old disputes which began before January 1, 1907, and were still in progress at the beginning of the quarter, give a total of 5,937 involved in strikes or lockouts during the first quarter of 1907, compared with 7,157 for the corresponding period in 1906.

In the following table the disputes of the first three months of 1907 are summarized by groups of trades:

GROUPS OF TRADES.	Number of Disputes	NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES AFFECTED			Number of Working Days Lost
		Directly	Indirectly	Total	
Textiles,	16	1,942	200	2,142	19,536
Boots and shoes,	13	476	500	976	12,415
Building trades,	4	136	14	150	1,560
Clothing,	3	1,572	—	1,572	9,432
Machinery and metals,	3	172	150	322	2,674
Transportation,	3	280	—	280	1,100
Other industries,	6	350	8	358	2,767
TOTALS,	48	4,928	872	5,800	49,484

Of the 48 disputes, 21 arose on demands for increases in wages, three on other wage questions, eight on questions of trade unionism, five on questions of the employment of particular classes or persons, three on details of working arrangements, three in sympathy with other strikes, one for demand for a reduction in the hours of labor, and in two disputes the cause could not be learned.

Definite results were reported in the case of 35 disputes. Of these, six were decided in favor of the employees, 23 were decided in favor of the employers, and six were compromised. Four disputes were pending at the end of the quarter.

The aggregate duration, or total number of working days lost, of strikes which began during the quarter was 49,484 working days. In addition, 6,825 working days were lost during the quarter owing to disputes which began before January 1. Thus the total duration of all disputes, new and old, was 56,309 working days as compared with 87,936 for the corresponding three months of 1906.

TRADE UNION NOTES.

[This section is intended to record, as far as possible, matters of current information regarding trade unions, particularly those of Massachusetts, and those internationals with which the local unions are affiliated.]

Bricklayers' State Convention.

The Sixteenth Annual Convention of the Massachusetts State Conference of Bricklayers, Masons, and Plasterers Unions was held at Fitchburg on March 11 and 12. There were 50 delegates present, representing 40 unions. The reports of the officers showed the organization to be in a flourishing condition. A resolution was presented and referred to a referendum vote, providing that the unions throughout the State should adopt a Saturday half-holiday. The convention, by unanimous vote, went on record as favoring the bill before the Legislature providing for an amendment to the State Constitution requiring the submission to popular vote of specific laws and amendments to the Constitution, upon the petition of 50,000 voters. The printers' strike for the eight-hour day was indorsed. It was voted to revise the constitution and by-laws

in order that they might conform with those of the International Union from which the State Conference had but recently received a charter. The next convention will be held in Brockton. — *The Labor News, Worcester.*

State Organization of City Employees.

Some progress toward the formation of a State organization of city employees was made at a meeting in Boston on April 14. The meeting, for which arrangements were made some weeks ago, was attended by representatives of about 5,000 city employees. The unions represented were: Bridge Tenders Union, Lamplighters Union No. 11943, Paving Department Workers Union No. 6751, Sewer Workers Union No. 9588, Water Workers Union No. 6356, all of Boston; Laborers Protective Union No. 9105, of Brockton; City Employees Union No. 8279, and Sewer Workers Union

No. 12231, of Cambridge; Federal Labor Union No. 11158, and Federal Labor Union No. 8217, of Malden; Team Drivers and Helpers Union No. 580, of Medford; City Men's Union No. 12280, of Newton; Federal Labor Union No. 11983, of Somerville; City Laborers Protective Union No. 11002, of Worcester.

A permanent organization was formed in May, to be known as the Massachusetts Federation of State, City, and Town Employees.

Union Stamp in Brockton Shoe Shops.

An editorial in the *Shoe Workers' Journal* for March, 1907, laments the action taken by the Joint Shoe Council of Brockton in terminating the union stamp contracts formerly existing between that organization and eight factories in the city. This action, taken by the Council in order that the price lists might be adjusted without arbitration, was believed by the editor to be a distinct departure from the policy of the international organization. Commenting further on this point he says:

"The success or failure in the settlement of the prices will in no way have a bearing on the value and equity of arbitration as the only means by which wages can be regulated peacefully and with justice to manufacturers and our members. To take away the power to dictate terms or fight from both contending parties and leave to a decision of an evenly appointed and impartial tribunal the settlement of the question at issue is and for many years to come will be the only method of effecting adjustments of matters which cannot be mutually agreed upon without strikes." He further pointed out that in almost every instance where the unions have been right in their contentions and have secured the proper experts to present their cases, they have received favorable decisions. Notwithstanding this fact there has been an opinion in Brockton that periodical holdups, brought about by the termination of contracts, enable the union to obtain from the manufacturer better results than could be obtained through arbitration — an opinion which was based on the manufacturer's desire to use the union stamp and to avoid strikes. As a matter of fact, however, the withholding of the union stamp from the manufacturer by the union injures the union as greatly as it injures the manufacturer.

District Assembly 30, Knights of Labor.

The Bureau has received the following with request to publish same:

District Assembly 30, K. of L., composed of longshoremen, freight handlers, steamship clerks, etc., will not permit any person, whether a member of the order or not, to publish any souvenir yearbook or other publication in its name, or to solicit any advertisements or subscriptions to such books. Any one doing so will be prosecuted for obtaining money under false pretences.

Trade Unions in Maine, 1906.

The Bureau of Industrial and Labor Statistics for the State of Maine, in its report for 1906, publishes a list of State and central labor organizations together with the location and name and address of the president and secretary in each case. This list includes two State and 11 central labor organizations. The number of local unions in 54 cities, towns, and plantations was 215, and the aggregate membership of 196 unions from which reports were received was 14,772, showing a gain in indicated membership of 974 over 1905. Statistics of labor unions in the State are presented by cities and towns, the material having been supplied by the local unions on blanks sent out by the Bureau. It is stated that "The great majority of union men are very anxious to have a full and reliable report because they understand that it is of great value to them. It is about the only way possible for them to find out anything about the trade conditions, strikes and lockouts, and many matters that directly affect themselves in other parts of the State." The blank sent to each union in 1906 by the Bureau "contained a communication from the labor commissioner, giving a quotation from the law, and briefly explaining the scope of the investigation, also a letter signed by the special agent, signifying what was expected of the secretaries of the different unions in furnishing the information desired" and called for replies to 22 questions relating principally to the officers and administration of the union, its membership, benefits, and dues, wages and unemployment of its members, agreements with employers, labor disputes in which it was concerned, local trade conditions, and the apprenticeship system in vogue.

Following the statistical information compiled from the replies received and presented by cities and towns, certain subjects are given general consideration. The results of organization are summarized as follows:

"In a few of the trades it is claimed that organization has produced no good results; in others, that the principal accomplishment lies in the moral force of the organized union in preventing the reduction of wages. Some lay great stress on the social and fraternal benefits of organization, while others see in the insurance benefits the leading value of labor unions. Several secretaries refer to the efforts of organized labor in bringing about the fortnightly payment law, and others to the increased compensation for overtime, holidays, and Sundays. On the whole there can be no doubt that many reforms, both material and social, as well as improved working conditions, have been brought about through the united efforts of organized labor."

With respect to the discriminations against non-union men, "answers from 89 unions indicate that non-union men enjoy equal conditions with union men and from 101 that they do not."

It was found that the international unions left the question of apprenticeship, which is rapidly going out of existence, to the local unions. So far as could be ascertained "the local unions have the power to restrict the number of apprentices as they may see fit in accordance with any agreement they may have with the employer." The replies received showed that only 15 unions have any semblance of a recognized apprentice system, and they constitute but a small proportion of the local unions of the State. The unions that appeared to have the most uniform and effective system were the granite cutters and quarry workers.

The subject of "requests, differences, and strikes" is considered by cities and towns and also in summary form. Referring to this subject in the introduction to the report Commissioner Matthews states that, "The relations of labor and capital have generally been amicable and satisfactory. The few labor difficulties which are reported have been of brief duration and have been adjusted without serious effect in the field of industry and enterprise."

Trade Union Directory—Connecticut, 1906.

The Report of the Connecticut Bureau of Labor Statistics for the year ending November 30, 1906, contains a directory of the labor organizations in that State. A directory of this nature was first published by the Bureau in 1899, and it has since become a permanent feature of the annual reports. In addition to the name and local number (if any) of the several organizations, the names and addresses of the various secretaries are given. An extra edition of this portion of the report has been issued in pamphlet form in order to meet the extraordinary demand for it.

The directory for 1906 shows that there were 10 State organizations in that year as compared with eight in 1905. The total number of local unions listed in 1906 was 501 as compared with 508 in 1905. It may be said that during the year 1906 a number of local unions have been absorbed by unions already in existence or have gone out of existence altogether, while, on the other hand, several new unions have been organized. Of the 501 local unions reported in 1906, 258, or over one-half, were in six cities as follows: Seventy-two in New Haven, 60 in Hartford, 33 in Bridgeport, 33 in Meriden, 30 in Danbury, 30 in Waterbury, while 243 were distributed among other cities or towns.

Trade Unions in Missouri, 1905.

The total number of labor organizations reporting to the Missouri Bureau of Labor Statistics and Inspection in 1905 was 609, representing 76,784 members of whom 74,303 were males and 2,481 were females. As compared with 1904, the returns showed a decrease

of 15 in the number of organizations and a decrease of 5,249 in the total membership. In 1905, 77.5 per cent of trade was reported organized as compared with 80.82 per cent in the previous year. During the year 1905, benefits were paid to the members by their respective organizations as follows: death benefits, \$137,248.56; sick and accident benefits, \$35,212.35; and out-of-work benefits, \$4,936.50. The total amount paid from all benefit funds amounted to \$305,985. The average amount per week paid as strike benefits was \$5.66 and as sick and accident benefits, \$5.10.

Of the 609 labor organizations in the State only 11 local unions were incorporated. One of these locals was incorporated as early as 1873 (also the date of its organization), one was incorporated in 1891, one in 1898, four in 1901, two in 1903, one in 1905, and one in 1906. Of these incorporated unions, three were unions of railway employees, two of barbers, and one each of cigarmakers, bartenders, candy makers, garment workers, hod carriers, and tailors. Only one of these 11 incorporated unions was affiliated with the American Federation of Labor.—*Report of the Missouri Bureau of Labor Statistics and Inspection, 1906.*

Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen.

Numerically the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen is the largest of the various railroad labor organizations. On February 28, 1907, it numbered 88,103 members in good standing. The Brotherhood was organized in 1883, and from the beginning its history has been one of steady growth. It has held itself strictly to admitting as members employees in train and yard service, and aside from its policy of admitting men from more than one class of those closely allied in railroad service, it has followed the established trade union lines very closely. At least 90 per cent of the railroad mileage in the United States and Canada is regulated for train and yard men by contracts, agreements, or schedules made by committees of the Brotherhood. Since the organization of its beneficiary department in 1884 the Brotherhood has paid to members almost \$14,000,000 in death and disability claims.—*The Railroad Employee.*

Co-operative Shops and Trade Unions.

In the *Coopers International Journal* for March, 1907, there appears a proposed amendment to the Constitution of the Coopers International Union of North America which, if adopted, would allow members of co-operative shops, formerly considered as employers of labor, to become members of the union provided that the company to which they belong pays the union scale and that all machine operators and journeymen coopers employed by the company are members.

Commenting on this proposed amendment,

a writer, in a letter published in the same number of the *Journal*, recommends that the matter be submitted to a referendum vote. He stated that he knew of no trade in which co-operative workmen may not become members of the union of that trade. In co-operation he saw a valuable weapon in case of a strike, for as a last resort, in case of failure to arrive at a proper settlement, the strikers could themselves engage in a contracting business as was done by striking coopers in California and by striking carpenters in Canada last year. Furthermore, since in the coopers' trade machine work is fast taking the place of the hand work, it would be to the advantage of the workmen to control the machinery. For these reasons it was urged that co-operative workmen in the trade be admitted to the union under certain conditions specified.

Trade Unions among English Women.

Under the above title there appeared an article in *Charities and the Commons* of March 2, 1907, by Mrs. Ellen M. Henrotin, President of the American Women's National Trade Union League. According to Mrs. Henrotin "The trades union movement among women is stronger in England than in the United States. The reasons are obvious; the principal one is the homogeneity of the people; also the fact that the whole movement there is on a recognized basis as a part of the body politic, and the public respects the effort of the wage-earning woman to help herself."

Attempts were made to organize women's trade unions in the early thirties and at irregular intervals from that period on but without permanent success until 1874, when the Women's Trade Union League was organized by Mrs. Paterson. In 1901, there were 144 British and Irish Unions having an aggregate membership of 120,078, the textile unions having the largest membership among the individual unions. Since 1901 there have been

large additions to the membership of the general body. Thus during the year ending in September, 1905, nine unions with an aggregate membership of 9,160 members were added to the league, and six more large unions were admitted prior to March, 1906, while a large number of new members have been added to the unions already affiliated, particularly to the unions of the textile workers and civil servants. The league now has several organizers in the field, and, while the task of organizing the women wage-earners, particularly those engaged in unskilled work, is not a light one, yet the success noted is very encouraging.

The League aims to unite in one association all the individual women's trade unions, and has accordingly established its headquarters in London. The general and executive committees include four members of Parliament, five of the nobility, two clergymen, one alderman, several authors and the secretaries of all the large trade unions. The League is well organized, its work being divided into several departments such as the "legislative" department, which seeks to advance the interests of the women wage-earners through legislation; the "intervention" department, which attempts to assist by advice and by other means in the settlement of such industrial disputes as may arise; the department of "complaints," which deals with infringement of factory and workshop acts, investigates these complaints and refers them to the proper authorities.

With reference to the future of women in industry, Mrs. Henrotin adds that "the main facts to be considered are that she is now permanently established in the labor market, and that for a long time an effort must be made through organization to educate her to meet the requirements of modern business and industrial methods; to control legislation in her behalf; to improve the sanitary conditions under which she labors, — above all to help her to help herself."

INDUSTRIAL AGREEMENTS.

Boston. PLUMBERS.

Plumbers Union No. 12 and Master Plumbers' Association of Boston and Vicinity.

This agreement entered into between the Master Plumbers' Association and Plumbers Union No. 12, of Boston, went into effect May 1, 1907, in all shops that employ members of the journeymen's union.

1. *Wages.* The minimum rate of wages for journeymen shall be at the rate of \$4.40 a day, on the hour basis (55 cents an hour), 75 cents

an hour for a night shift, when night and day shift are employed on time limit contracts. All other overtime at the regular double time rate.

2. *Hours of Labor.* Eight hours to constitute a day's work for the first five days in each week, and four hours Saturday. The employers have the privilege of working a man Saturday afternoon in emergency cases, such as bad leaks, etc., until 5 o'clock without paying double time.

3. *Out-of-town Work.* The time limit for

leaving city on out-of-town work to be 7 A.M., where it is necessary to do so to get to work at 8 A.M., and that the journeyman shall return not later than 6 P.M. by the quickest and shortest route.

4. *Pipe Cutting.* All pipes two inches and under for vents, supplies, etc., shall be cut by the plumbers, except waste pipes where recess fittings are used.

5. *Board and Transportation.* When a journeyman plumber is sent to a job outside the city of Boston, and it is necessary to be absent from home, the master plumber shall pay the board of the journeyman, or furnish transportation to and from the job each day.

6. *Payment of Wages.* It is agreed that all members of the local shall be paid in full by 12 o'clock, noon, on Saturday of each week.

7. This agreement to go into effect May 1, 1907.

Lynn.

COAL TEAMSTERS.

Team Drivers Union No. 42 and Employers.

1. Teamsters shall report at barn, clean horses, and be ready to leave stable at 6.55 A.M.; day's work shall end at 5 P.M.

2. All overtime shall be paid for at the rate of 25 cents an hour, and work of less than one-half day shall be paid for as overtime, give or take 15 minutes.

3. One-horse teamsters shall be paid \$12 a week.

4. Two-horse teamsters shall be paid \$14 a week.

5. Screeners shall be paid \$12 a week.

6. Three-horse teamsters shall be paid \$15 a week.

7. Teamsters who are obliged to report to clean horses shall receive \$1 for the same, on Sundays and holidays; time and one-half for screening and teaming on Sundays and holidays.

8. Members in good standing of Local No. 42 shall be given the preference of work.

9. Screeners shall report at wharf at 7 A.M. and quit work at 5 P.M., with a regular dinner hour.

10. The business agent of Local No. 42 shall, upon request, be shown the pay roll of any firm signing this agreement.

11. Men may be discharged for incompetence, dishonesty, carelessness, and intoxication.

12. The union shall be allowed a representative on each wharf and no discrimination be used.

13. A copy of this agreement shall be placed in each barn.

14. This schedule will go into effect January 1, 1907, and continue until January 1, 1908.

Both parties to the agreement agree to accept the above schedule provided that hereafter all differences existing between employers and employees shall be referred to any board

of arbitration satisfactory to both sides for adjustment, and that 60 days' notice shall be given by either party desiring a change, and that there shall be no strike or lockout pending the decision of the board.

In General.

STREET RAILWAY EMPLOYEES.

Boston and Northern Street Railway Co. and Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway Employees of America, Divisions Nos. 238, of Lynn; 240, of Chelsea; 246, of Salem; 249, of Wakefield; 261, of Lawrence; 270, of Gloucester; and 280, of Lowell.

In the operation of the Boston and Northern Street Ry. Co., and respecting the relations to exist during the term of this contract between the company and those of its employees who for the time being shall be members of the Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway Employees of America, both parties hereunto mutually agree:

1. That the company, through its proper officers, shall treat, when occasion therefor may arise, with those of its employees in their collective capacity who may for the time being be members of said association, through the properly accredited officers and the committees of said several divisions, and the officers of said Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway Employees of America.

2. That the working hours for all motormen and conductors shall be 10 a day, to be completed within 12 consecutive hours.

3. That the wages to be paid by the company to its motormen and conductors shall be as follows, all the periods of time hereinafter stated to begin with the first day of the calendar month following the day of actual employment in the case of each motorman or conductor, viz.:

During the first six months of employment, 20 cents an hour;

During the second six months of employment, 21 cents an hour;

During the second, third, and fourth years of employment, 22 cents an hour;

During the fifth, sixth, and seventh years of employment, 23 cents an hour;

During the eighth and ninth years of employment, 24 cents an hour;

During the tenth and all subsequent years of employment, 25 cents an hour.

4. The hours now constituting a day's work for pit-men, car-cleaners, track-repair-men, and track-oilers, respectively, on the different divisions of the company's railway shall remain as at present, and the wages at present paid said classes of employees respectively, except in the case of apprentices, shall be increased five per cent over the wages at present paid by the company to said employees respectively. All day car-repair-men who have worked all day and

up to midnight on any day shall, whenever they are required to work after midnight, receive pay at the rate of time and one-half for all work performed between midnight and the regular hour for beginning work in the morning.

5. All conductors and motormen regularly employed by the company shall, when circumstances do not permit of their doing regular and customary work, receive a preference in assignment to snow-plow work, and such regular men when employed as foremen upon snow-plow work shall be paid at the rate of 30 cents an hour, and when otherwise employed upon snow-plow work shall be paid at the rate of 25 cents an hour, and meals, when rendered necessary by the exigencies of the work, shall be furnished or paid for by the company during such snow-plow work.

6. No motorman or conductor shall be compelled to work overtime except in extreme cases, and in no case shall a motorman or conductor be compelled to work overtime on more than three days in any one week.

7. That all men shall be paid from the time they are marked up for duty, or when asked to report for duty, and so reporting, until relieved from duty. All men running regular cars and asked to run regular extras, after completion of regular car run, shall be paid continuous time.

8. That where conductors or motormen are required to lose time in looking up evidence, or in making out reports in accident cases, other than those required in the regular practice of the company by the company's rules, they shall be paid for the time so lost at the same rate of pay they would have received for operating their cars.

9. That where any member of the association, employed by the company, has been suspended or discharged, and the association feels, after a careful investigation on its part, that an injustice has been done him, the association shall have the right to take the case up first with the division superintendent, and if it cannot reach a satisfactory adjustment with the division superintendent it shall have the right to appeal the case to the general superintendent, and if it cannot reach a satisfactory adjustment with the general superintendent it shall have the right to appeal the case to the general manager. If it is determined that such conductor, motorman, or employee was unjustly laid off or discharged, he shall be reinstated in his former position and paid for all time lost.

10. That all competent employees shall have the choice of runs, according to their continuous length of time in the service of the company. Choice of runs shall be given upon any and all changes. This provision shall not apply to the Highland Circuit Line in Lynn.

11. That except in cases of emergency, where special schedules are arranged, all changes in schedules, or new schedules, shall be posted at least 48 hours before going into effect.

12. That all new service cars and snow-plows hereafter built, purchased or otherwise added to the company's equipment shall be vested.

13. That the company shall provide a book or card for the motormen and conductors in which to register their names and the dates they respectively wish to be off duty, first on the list to have the preference. All motormen and conductors shall be allowed one day off, if they so desire, at least in every two weeks, at the convenience of the company.

14. That subject to the rules of the company, whenever any official, whether local or international, of the association, is called upon to carry on any business of the above-named association, he shall be granted a leave of absence.

15. The company agrees to furnish to each of its employees free transportation over the division in which such employees are respectively employed; and upon request will furnish transportation to a reasonable extent over other parts of the company's system.

16. That should any serious difficulty arise between the parties hereto in respect to matters not treated of in this agreement, or in respect to the true intent and meaning of any provision hereof, or in respect to any readjustment of wages requested by either party, as provided in Sec. 19 (excepting all questions of discipline which shall be governed in the method provided in Sec. 9), and after a consideration of the difficulty by a joint committee of said several local divisions and a determination by said committee that the difficulty is of sufficient seriousness to be called to the attention of the company, and if the parties shall find that such difficulty cannot be amicably adjusted between themselves, the issue involved in such difficulty between the parties shall be submitted, upon the request of either party to the other (it being agreed that a request by the president of the company to the international president of the association, or by the international president of the association to the president of the company, shall be sufficiently presented and received respectively), to a special board of arbitration, to consist of three disinterested persons, who shall be selected as follows:

The company shall select one member of said board, the association shall select one member, and the two members so selected shall select a third member, and the finding or decision of such board, or of the majority of the members thereof, shall be binding on the company and on the association. All expenses of the board of arbitration shall be borne as follows: Each party shall pay the arbitrator of its own selection and the parties hereto shall jointly pay the third arbitrator. In case a matter is submitted to arbitration, the question to be determined by the board of arbitration shall be specified in writing, and each party hereto shall select its arbitrator within five days after such specification has been given by

either party to the other, and the two arbitrators shall meet daily until the third arbitrator has been selected, and the failure of either party to so select its arbitrator within the said five days shall warrant a finding by the arbitrator selected by the other party on the issue submitted in the written specification. Any request, notice or written specification under this section, from the company to the association, shall be held to be properly served if addressed to the international president of the association, and delivered to or left at the residence of a president of one of said local divisions, and any such request, notice or specification from the association to the company shall be held to be properly served if addressed to the president of the company, and delivered to the president, a vice-president, or the treasurer of the company, at its principal office or place of business in the city of Boston.

17. That the company will do nothing to prevent or discourage any employee from becoming or continuing to be a member of said association, and shall in no way discriminate against a member thereof because of such membership; and that said association shall not discriminate against any person in the employ of said company because of his refusal to join said association or to continue a member thereof; but if any member of said association is expelled or suspended from his membership therein, for violation of any of the provisions of this agreement, the company, being satisfied that said expulsion or suspension was for such reason, and was justifiable, shall dismiss such employee from its service; that if any member of said association employed by the company shall neglect or refuse to pay to said association any dues or assessments which have duly become a liability from him to said association during his membership thereof, and while such employee, and before notice in writing by him to the secretary of the local division of said association of which he is a member of his withdrawal therefrom and surrender of his membership therein, and shall continue such refusal to pay such sum or sums as are so justly due from him to said

association, after a determination by the company of the justice of the claim of said association for such sums from such employee, the company will discharge such employee from its service, or suspend him until all such sums have been paid.

18. It is further agreed that in consideration of the agreements of the company herein contained each and all of the employees of said company who are, or may hereafter become members of said association, shall conduct themselves to the best of their ability as becomes gentlemen, be courteous to the passengers of the company, and to the traveling public desirous of using the service furnished by said company, and shall work at all times and in all ways and in respect to all matters for the best interests of said company, and will be respectful, loyal, and faithful to said company and its officers, and will support and defend its reputation and conduct, and endeavor in all ways to promote its success and the quality and efficiency of its service, and will report to its officers any respects in which such service can be improved or the success of the company promoted.

19. That this agreement shall go into effect June 1, 1906, and shall be binding upon the Boston and Northern Street Ry. Co., and upon said association and the said several local divisions, and upon all persons who are now, or may at any time hereafter during the continuance hereof become members of said association, and shall remain in full force and effect respecting all subject matters herein treated from and after said date until the expiration of four years from and after October 1, 1906, provided, however, that on October 1, 1908, or upon any subsequent October 1, either party hereto may ask for a consideration and revision of the schedule of wages hereinbefore in Secs. 3 and 4 fixed and agreed upon, if such party gives to the other not less than 30 days' notice previous to such October 1 of its wish to take up with the other party said question. Any such notice may be given and served in the manner provided in Sec. 16 hereof.

RECENT COURT DECISIONS RELATING TO LABOR.

Dispute between Trade Unions — Member of One Refused Membership of Other — In the recent English case of Buckley v. Morrell, it appeared that a workman, who had for several years been employed as a stuff presser by a firm of dyers in Bradford, left that firm in November, 1900, and took a situation with a firm at Cleckheaton. In December he was told by the foreman under whom he worked that he had

been asked by the Leeds, Halifax and Bradford Stuff-Pressers' Trade Union Society to dismiss him. He had been for several years a member of the Bradford Amalgamated Society of Dyers, to which, apparently, only machine pressers belonged. He joined the Stuff-Pressers' Society as well, but after having paid one or two subscriptions he was informed that he could not continue to be a member, as he was a mem-

ber of the Dyers' Society. He offered to give up his membership of the Dyers' Society if he could continue to be a member of the Stuff-Pressers' Society, but his offer was not accepted. The foreman then received a letter from the secretary of the Stuff-Pressers' Society, informing him that he had been censured by the committee for not having discharged the man, as he was not a member of the Society, and requiring him to at once discharge him. The man was accordingly summarily dismissed in January, 1906, and was unable to get other employment.

He then brought an action against the president and other officials of the Stuff-Pressers' Society, claiming damages against them for wrongfully procuring his dismissal, and a breach of the contract between him and his employers.

For the defence it was contended at the trial that the plaintiff had disobeyed the rules of the Society, in that being a machine presser he had worked as a hand presser. It appeared that there had been a dispute between the two societies; for a time men had been allowed to belong to both, but afterwards the Stuff-Pressers' Society had forbidden their members to belong to the other society. In summing up the case to the jury, the Lord Chief Justice said that the defendants were entitled to defend the interests of their society so long as they kept within the law. If, however, they had unduly harassed the plaintiff and induced his employers to break their contract with him, they would be liable in damages. The jury gave a verdict for the plaintiff for 40 pounds damages, and judgment was given accordingly.

Levy on Member of Trade Union for Payment of Member of Parliament. — In the recent English case of *Steele v. South Wales Miners' Federation*, before the King Bench Division, it appeared that

A miner became a member of a trade union in 1900. In 1901, a new rule was made providing that it should be one of the objects of the union "to provide funds wherewith to pay the expenses of returning and maintaining representatives to Parliament and other public councils and boards, and to request them to press forward by every legitimate means all proposals conducive to the general welfare of the workers of the federation."

A ballot of the members was taken as to making a levy upon the members for the purpose of carrying out this rule. There was a large majority of members in favor of the levy, but the miner voted in the minority against it. Subsequently he paid certain sums, amounting to 4s., in respect of the levy, and later he brought an action in a county court against the union to recover the 4s.; for an injunction to restrain the union from continuing to make the levy; and for a declaration that the rule under which the levy was made was illegal.

The county court judge gave judgment for the defendant union on all heads of the claim, and the plaintiff appealed to the High Court.

At the hearing of the appeal the claim for the recovery of the 4s. paid was abandoned, as the county court judge had found as a fact that the appellant had paid the money voluntarily. On the other points it was argued for the appellant that the rule made in 1901 was absolutely illegal, as being outside the purposes for which the union existed, as contained in the statutory definition of their purposes. For the respondent union, it was argued that the statutory definition of a trade union did not restrict the powers of the union, and that the levy was perfectly legal. It was also contended that the Court had no jurisdiction to deal with the matter by reason of the provision in the Trade Union Act, 1871, that nothing in the act "shall enable any Court to entertain any legal proceedings instituted with the object of directly enforcing or recovering damages for the breach of . . . any agreement for the application of the funds of a Trade Union."

The Court dismissed the appeal, holding that the section of the Act of 1876, which defined a trade union (as any combination, whether temporary or permanent, for regulating the relations between workmen and masters, or between workmen and workmen, or between masters and masters, or for imposing restrictive conditions on the conduct of any trade or business), did not in any way limit the objects of a trade union, or define all its powers; that there was nothing illegal in the rule; and that the making of the levy was perfectly legal, though if it had been illegal, an injunction might have been granted.

Constitutionality of Fellow-servant Act. — In the recent case of *Vindicator Consolidated Gold Mining Co. v. Firstbrook*, 86 Pac. 313, before the Supreme Court of Colorado, it appeared that there had been an action to recover damages for the death of the husband of the plaintiff, the death having resulted from an accident occasioned by the negligence of a fellow-servant. The widow had secured judgment in the District Court of Teller County, which was on appeal affirmed by the Supreme Court of the State. The case involved the constitutionality of the Fellow-servant Act of 1901, which abolishes the doctrine of co-servant as a defense. After disposing of other points involved in the appeal, Justice Gabbert, who delivered the opinion of the Court, maintained the constitutionality of the statute referred to, using in part the following language:

"The final and important question is the validity of the co-employee act. . . . It is urged that the act is unconstitutional, in that it is in conflict with the Fourteenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution, because it deprives persons of their property without due process of law. The act in question renders

the employer liable for damages resulting from injuries to or death of an employee, caused by the negligence of a co-employee in the same manner, and to the same extent, as if the negligence causing the injury or death was that of the employer. . . . That the act in question may be regarded by some as harsh or unjust, because imposing too great a liability is not a matter which we can consider in determining its validity by constitutional tests. Whether or not the employer is liable under the act in question must be determined by each particular case based on the provisions of that act. It does not deprive him of any defense to the liability thereby imposed which, under the established rules of law, could be regarded as sufficient, save and except his own lack of negligence; but such a defense is not a constitutional right. The law itself, as a rule of conduct, may, unless constitutional limitations forbid, be changed at the will of the Legislature. . . . The exercise of the discretion of that branch of the government to enact laws can not be questioned so long as such laws do not conflict with either State or Federal constitutional provisions. No such provisions have been called to our attention which limit the authority of the General Assembly to abolish the rule heretofore existing which exempted the employer from liability to employees caused by the negligence of a co-employee, and render him liable to his employees for the negligence of a co-employee. For the purpose of providing for the safety and protection of employees in the service of a common employer, the law-making power has the undoubted authority to abrogate the exception to the general rule of *respondet superior* in favor of the employer, and make him liable to one of his employees for damages caused by the negligence of another employee while acting within the scope of his employment, regardless of the fact that such employees are fellow-servants."

Boycotting — Picketing — Injunction. — The Supreme Court of California, in the recent case of *Goldberg, Bowen & Co. v. Stablemen's Union No. 8760 et al.*, 86 Pac. 806, affirmed the judgment of the Superior Court of the City and County of San Francisco. It appeared that, owing to a dispute on the subject of wages, stablemen in the employ of plaintiff struck. An injunction was granted the company restraining the union from interfering with the company's business. Union appealed from decision which resulted in affirmation of the injunction in a modified form.

Judge McFarland, who delivered the opinion of the Court, said in part: "It is averred in the complaint that in the case at bar, and for the purpose above stated, and with intent to threaten and intimidate employees and patrons and customers of plaintiff, the said defendants do keep immediately in front of plaintiff's place of business, and threaten to so keep there,

representatives and pickets bearing the placards and transparencies above set forth, and that by said means they have intimidated patrons and customers of plaintiff from entering said place of business, and will, if not restrained, continue to so intimidate the said patrons. It can not be successfully contended that the said acts of defendants committed immediately in front of plaintiff's place of business as aforesaid could not, in the nature of things, have had the effect of intimidating plaintiff's patrons, and, as it is averred that they did have that effect, the fact of such intimidation must, for the purposes of this case, be considered as established; and such acts, having such effect, undoubtedly interfered with and violated plaintiff's constitutional right to acquire, possess, defend, and enjoy property. [Cases cited.] . . .

"Act March 20, 1903; St. 1903, c. 235, p. 289, is somewhat difficult of construction; but, in the first place, it can not, in our opinion, be construed as undertaking to prohibit a court from enjoining the main wrongful acts charged in the complaint in this action, and, in the second place, if it could be so construed, it would to that extent be void, because violative of plaintiff's constitutional right to acquire, possess, enjoy, and protect property.

"It is contended by appellants that the judgment rendered in this case is too comprehensive, and enjoins them from doing some acts which are not within the averments of the complaint, or within the principle, even if conceded to be correct, upon which the court below based its conclusion. We think that this contention must be sustained, to the extent, at least, as is hereinafter stated. Some parts of the judgment seem to enjoin appellants from a mere expression of an opinion at any time or place as to plaintiff and its business, which would, at the worst, consist only of slander, which could not be reached in this form of action, and seem to restrain them from doing other things which do not appear to be connected with or incidental to the main acts and threatened acts done at and in front of plaintiff's said places of business as above stated. The judgment must therefore be modified so as to eliminate those objectionable parts."

Constitutionality of Ten-hour Law for Children. — In the recent case of *State v. Shorey*, 86 Pac. 881, before the Supreme Court of Oregon, it appeared that John F. Shorey had been convicted in the Circuit Court of Multnomah County of a violation of Sec. 5 of the Child Labor Law of 1905, which prohibits the employment of a minor under 16 years of age for more than 10 hours a day. An appeal was taken on the ground that the statute was unconstitutional, as being in conflict with the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution of the United States, which provides that no State shall "deprive any person of life, liberty,

or property, without due process of law;" and of Sec. 1, Art. 1 of the State Constitution, which reads: "We declare that all men, when they form a social compact, are equal in rights."

The Court ruled in favor of the constitutionality of the act. Justice Bean, speaking for the Court, said in part:

"It is competent for the State to forbid the employment of children in certain callings merely because it believes such prohibition to be for their best interest, although the prohibited employment does not involve a direct danger to morals, decency, or of life or limb. Such legislation is not an unlawful interference with the parents' control over the child or right to its labor, nor with the liberty of the child. (People v. Ewer [N. Y.], 36 N. E. 4.) Laws prohibiting the employment of adult males for more than a stated number of hours per day or week are not valid unless reasonably necessary to protect the public health, safety, morals, or general welfare, because the right to labor or employ labor on such terms as may be agreed upon is a liberty or property right guaranteed to such persons by the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States, and with which the State cannot interfere. (Lochner v. New York, 25 Sup. Ct. 539.) But laws regulating the right of minors to contract do not come within this principle. They are not *sui juris*, and can only contract to a limited extent. They are wards of the State and subject to its control. As to them the State stands in the position of *parens patriæ* and may exercise unlimited supervision and control over their contracts, occupation, and conduct, and the liberty and right of those who assume to deal with them. This is a power which inheres in the government for its own preservation and for the protection of the life, person, health, and morals of its future citizens. . . .

"We are of the opinion, therefore, that the law prohibiting the employment of a child under 16 years of age for longer than 10 hours in any one day is a valid exercise of a legislative power. It is argued, however, that the provisions of the statute forbidding the employment of such a child at any work before the hour of seven in the morning or after the hour of six at night, is so manifestly unreasonable and arbitrary as to be void on that account. The defendant is not accused nor was he convicted of violating this provision of the statute, and is therefore not in a position to raise the question suggested.

"It follows that the judgment of the Court below must be affirmed, and it is so ordered."

Constitutionality of Statute Prohibiting Employment of Children in Certain Occupations. — In the recent case of *Ex parte Weber*, 86 Pac. 809, before the Supreme Court of California, it appeared that Henry Weber had been convicted of violating § 272 of the Penal Code, as amended by c. 568, St. 1905, which prohibits

the employment of children under 16 years of age in immoral, injurious, or dangerous occupations, and petitioned for a writ of habeas corpus to secure his release from confinement. The statute in question contains a proviso excepting from its application children employed as singers or musicians in churches, schools, and academies.

Weber contended that the statute was unfairly discriminating and therefore unconstitutional. This the Court denied, upholding the law, and refusing to grant the writ petitioned for. Its rulings appear in the following quotations from the remarks of Justice Shaw, who delivered the opinion of the Court:

"The contention of the petitioner is that these provisions contain arbitrary and unreasonable classification, and, consequently, are not of uniform operation, and that the act constitutes a special law for the punishment of crimes, where a general law could be made applicable. It is said that only a certain portion of the minor children of the State are affected by the act, namely, those who are under 16 years of age, and that this is an arbitrary discrimination between those who are over that age and those who are under that age; that any child over that age may enjoy his natural privilege of working for his own support as he pleases, while those under that age are prohibited therefrom. There is no sound reason for any such criticism. The same reasoning might be applied to a large number of laws which are universally conceded to be valid and constitutional. The law providing that a male person under 21 years of age is a minor, subject to the legal disabilities of minority, might be rendered unconstitutional by the same process of reasoning. It is competent for the Legislature to provide regulations for the protection of children of immature years. The growth of a child is gradual and the age of maturity varies with different children. It is impossible for any person to fix the exact time when a child is capable of protecting itself. The legislative judgment in regard to the proper age at which such regulations shall become applicable to the child can not be interfered with by the courts.

"It is also stated that the law makes an unfair discrimination by allowing the employment of children as singers or musicians in churches, schools, or academies. The ground of this objection is that such employment, so far as the Court can see, may be as injurious to the health or morals, or as dangerous to the life or limb of the child as those which are prohibited in the law, and that no prohibition is lawful under the Constitution unless it extends to all employments which are equally injurious. In matters of this kind the Legislature has large discretion. It must determine the degree of injury to health or morals, which the different kinds of employment inflict upon the child, and the corresponding necessity of protecting

the child from the effects thereof, and, unless its decision in that regard is manifestly unreasonable, there is no ground for judicial interference. We do not think the law in question so unreasonable as to require us to hold it unconstitutional.

"The petition is denied, and the petitioner is remanded to the custody of the officer."

Constitutionality of Statute relative to the Examination and Licensing of Plumbers. — In the recent case of *Caven et al. v. Coleman*, 96 S. W. 774, before the Court of Civil Appeals of Texas, it appeared that W. P. Coleman sued in the District Court of Harrison County for a mandamus to compel T. S. Caven and others, mayor and aldermen of the city of Marshall, to appoint an examining and supervising board of plumbers for the city, as required by c. 163, Laws of 1897. The law in question provided that on this board there should be, among others, the city engineer and a member of the local board of health, while the city of Marshall had no such officers. The mayor and aldermen contended that the appointment of such officers was discretionary with the city council and not mandatory; that the special charter of the city, which contained no specific provision for such officers, was in conflict with the statute named, and operated as a repeal thereof so far as the city of Marshall is concerned; and, finally, that the act itself is an unwarranted interference with the right of private business enterprise, and is therefore unconstitutional and void.

All these contentions were denied in the lower court, and, on appeal, in the Court of Civil Appeals. The views of the court as to the constitutionality of the statute are set forth in the following extract from the remarks of Judge Talbot, who delivered the opinion of the court:

"Referring to respondents' contention, that the Act of the Twenty-fifth Legislature under consideration 'interferes with the rights of citizens to do business, and confers special privileges on a certain class, etc., and is therefore unconstitutional and void,' it may be said that said Act comes clearly within the police powers of the State. . . .

"An indisputable function of the police power, and one frequently exercised by the State municipalities, is to provide for the preservation of the health of the people. And while the right of the individual to labor and enjoy the fruits thereof is recognized as a 'natural right which may not be unreasonably interfered with by legislation,' yet whenever the 'pursuit concerns the public health and is

of such a character as to require special training or experience to qualify one to pursue such occupation with safety to the public interest, the Legislature may enact reasonable regulations to protect the public against the evils which may result from incapacity and ignorance.' Such regulations, which have been uniformly upheld, will be found in statutes prohibiting the practice of medicine or surgery by persons not licensed, or the compounding of medicines by any other person than a licensed or registered pharmacist. Other examples of this principle are found in our Sunday laws and the laws which require study and an examination before a person is permitted to practice law or engage in the occupation of a dentist. . . .

"Nor does the statute in question, as contended by counsel for respondents, discriminate against individual plumbers not members of a firm, in that it allows a firm of any number of members to do plumbing, if only one member has the license required. Neither does it allow members of a corporation to do a plumbing business without having passed the required examination and procured a license. Section 5 of the statute is sufficiently broad and comprehensive to include every person engaged in the work of plumbing, whether he be a member of a firm or of a corporation. It provides: 'That license shall not be issued to any person or firm to carry on or work at the business of plumbing or to act as inspector of plumbing until he or they shall have appeared before the examining and supervising board for examination and registration, and shall have successfully passed the required examination. Every firm carrying on the business of plumbing shall have at least one member who is a practical plumber.' A distinction seems to have been made of a licensed plumber and a practical plumber, and, in the case of a firm, the members must not only pass the required examination, but one of the members must be a 'practical plumber.' It can not be said that the provision, 'every firm carrying on the business of plumbing shall have at least one practical plumber,' means that only one member of the firm is required to pass the examination. The section quoted requires all who engage in the work to stand the examination. We think it well settled that a statute which selects particular individuals from a class and imposes upon them special obligations or burdens, from which others in the same class are exempt, is unconstitutional; but such is not, in our opinion, the character of the statute under consideration."

EXCERPTS

Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest.

Exhibits of Industrial Conditions.*Boston.*

During the week from April 7 to 14 inclusive a notable exhibit of industrial conditions with special reference to public health, safety, and welfare was held in Horticultural Hall, Boston, under the auspices of the following social and educational organizations: Women's Trade Union League, Massachusetts Consumers' League, Boston Central Labor Union, Boston Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis, Women's Educational and Industrial Union, Boston Trade School for Girls, North Bennet Street Industrial School, Industrial Committee of the Twentieth Century Club, Massachusetts State Federation of Women's Clubs, and Woman's Education Association.

Additional features included special exhibits by the Massachusetts State Board of Health, the Boston Board of Health, and the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor, also exhibits loaned by the American Museum of Safety Devices and Industrial Hygiene, the Chicago Industrial Exhibit, and the Social Museum of Harvard University.

In connection with the exhibit a program of conferences and addresses was arranged for the afternoons and evenings.

An exhibit of "industrial defects" and the remedies therefor had never before been held in New England, although Philadelphia, New York, and more recently, Chicago, have arranged exhibits which served, in some measure, as models for the Boston exhibit. By its reproduction of actual factory conditions and of tenement workrooms, its graphic presentations, its lectures (illustrated in certain instances by the stereopticon), and by its other methods of representing existing industrial conditions not only in this State but elsewhere, the Boston exhibit has sought to awaken the interest, not only of employers and employees, but of the citizens in general.

The real "spirit" of the exhibit has been expressed in an editorial in the *Boston Herald* from which we quote the following:

"No phase of the exhibit of industrial conditions, at Horticultural Hall, is more striking to the observer who has never before considered the problem as a whole than the reciprocal character of reformative efforts by employers, employed, and the public. The list of committeemen, though it contains names noted in mill management, in trades unions, and in

philanthropy, is not more 'representative' than are the results shown in the exhibit.

"What labor unions have done to obtain higher pay, shorter hours, and sanitary conditions is not all. A thousand appliances for arresting disease and preventing accident, as well as devices and departments for promoting health, happiness, and morality among the operatives, testify to the voluntary endeavors of factory owners to improve conditions. Restrictive legislation, health laws, provision (both by taxation and by subscription) for industrial education, and the vigilance of consumers' organizations, are the outward tokens of the public impulse to help the movement."

Chicago.

An industrial exhibit showing good and bad conditions under which men and women work in this country, with special attention to the conditions under which they work in Chicago and Illinois, was held in Chicago, March 11 to 17, under the auspices of local and State organizations interested in promoting the industrial welfare of the community. An admission fee of 25 cents was charged except on the last day (Sunday) when admission was free. An unexpectedly large attendance was reported, particularly on the last few evenings.

The local exhibit was supplemented by exhibits loaned by the American Museum of Safety Devices and Industrial Hygiene and by the Philadelphia Exhibit of Industrial Conditions. Sections in the Chicago Exhibit were devoted to the industrial geography of Chicago, sweated industries, women in industry, safety appliances and occupational diseases, and remedial measures in factories and stores. The representations were by photographs, charts, models, power machinery, stereopticon slides, moving pictures, full scale reproductions of home and shop conditions with the workers at work and industrial tableaux. Conferences were held on topics of industrial interest and among the speakers were university professors, State and city officials, trade union officials, and settlement workers. The success of the exhibit was so encouraging that it has led its promoters to consider the feasibility of providing for the holding of annual exhibits on a larger scale, and for the securing of permanent quarters to be used as a museum for preserving this and other material of value to the municipality.

Labor Legislation in Massachusetts.*Overtime Law for Textile Mills.*

On April 2, 1907, a bill "relative to the hours of labor of women and minors employed in the manufacture of textile goods" received the approval of the Governor (Chap. 267, Acts of 1907). The act amends sec. 27, c. 106, Revised Laws, the new section reading as follows, the amendment being shown by italics:

Sec. 27. No person, and no agent or officer of a person or corporation, shall employ a woman or minor in any capacity for the purpose of manufacturing between ten o'clock at night and six o'clock in the morning. *No person, and no agent or officer of a person or corporation engaged in the manufacture of textile goods, shall employ any minor under eighteen years of age, or any woman, before six o'clock in the morning or after six o'clock in the evening.* Whoever violates the provisions of this section shall be punished by a fine of not less than twenty nor more than 50 dollars for each offence.

This act will take effect October 1, 1907.

Eight-hour Law.

On April 3, 1907, a bill relative to the hours of labor of workmen, mechanics, and engineers, amending c. 517, Acts of 1906, received the approval of the Governor (Chap. 269, Acts of 1907). The law as amended reads as follows, the new portion being shown by italics:

Sec. 1. Eight hours shall constitute a day's work for all laborers, workmen and mechanics now or hereafter employed by or on behalf of the Commonwealth, or of any county therein, or of any city or town which has accepted the provisions of section twenty of chapter one hundred and six of the Revised Laws. *No laborer, workman or mechanic so employed shall be requested or required to work more than eight hours in any one calendar day or more than forty-eight hours in any one week except in cases of extraordinary emergency. Only a case of danger to property, to life, to public safety or to public health shall be considered a case of extraordinary emergency within the meaning of this section. Engineers shall be considered mechanics within the meaning of this act.* But in cases where a Saturday half-holiday is given the hours of labor upon the other working days of the week may be increased sufficiently to make a total of forty-eight hours for the week's work. *Threat of loss of employment or threat to obstruct or prevent the obtaining of employment, or threat to refrain from employing in the future shall be considered requiring, within the meaning of this section.*

Sec. 2. Every contract, excluding contracts for the purchase of material or supplies, to which the Commonwealth, or of any county therein, or of any city or town which has accepted the provisions of section twenty of chapter one hundred and six of the Revised Laws, is a party which may involve the employment of laborers, workmen or mechanics

shall contain a stipulation that no laborer, workman or mechanic *working within this Commonwealth* in the employ of the contractor, sub-contractor or other person doing or contracting to do the whole or a part of the work contemplated by the contract shall be *requested or required to work more than eight hours in any one calendar day and every such contract which does not contain this stipulation shall be null and void.*

Sec. 3. This act shall apply to all laborers, workmen or mechanics engaged upon any works which are or are intended to be the property of the Commonwealth, or of any county therein, or of any city or town which has accepted the provisions of section twenty of chapter one hundred and six of the Revised Laws, whether such laborers, workmen or mechanics are employed by public authority or by a contractor or other private person.

Sec. 4. *Any person or contractor or sub-contractor, or any agent or person acting on behalf of any contractor or sub-contractor, or any agent or official of the Commonwealth or of any county, city or town who violates any provision of this act shall be subject to a penalty of fifty dollars for each offence.*

Sec. 5. The provisions of this act shall not apply to or affect contractors or sub-contractors for work, contracts for which were entered into prior to the passage of this act.

Sec. 6. So much of any act as is inconsistent herewith is hereby repealed.

The New Hampshire Bureau of Labor.

In the last session of the General Court of New Hampshire an attempt was made to abolish the Bureau of Labor. The Governor in his message recommended that the Bureau be abolished, and its work, if of any value, be continued by some other department. Representatives of organized labor soon introduced a bill in compliance with the Governor's message, and creating a three-headed Board of Arbitration under an act entitled "An Act for the reorganization and extension of duties of the Bureau of Labor." This bill was referred to the Labor Committee of the House and after hearings was reported 10 to 3 to be indefinitely postponed, the minority putting in a report "ought to pass." Meanwhile a Committee on Retrenchment and Reform, which had been instructed to investigate certain departments, reported in favor of abolishing the Bureau and introduced a bill for that purpose, which was tabled for a time. When the first mentioned bill came up, the House voted to substitute the minority report for that of the majority, and the bill went to the appropriation committee, and was still there when the House adjourned. Then the Retrenchment and Reform bill was taken up and passed by the House, about a week before the time set for final adjournment. The representatives of organized labor presented a petition to the Senate against the

abolishment of the Bureau and asked for a hearing, which was given by the labor committee. The day before final adjournment this committee reported "inexpedient to legislate," and the report was adopted by the Senate without dissent; so the Bureau continues in existence for two years longer.

Samuel W. Matthews.

Hon. Samuel W. Matthews was appointed Commissioner of the Bureau of Industrial and Labor Statistics of the State of Maine in 1887, when the Bureau was established, and resigned his position in February, 1907, after a period of 20 years, being a longer term of service than that of any head of a Labor Bureau in the country. He has been a constant attendant at the Convention of Officials of Labor Bureaus held annually and has been greatly interested in their proceedings. He paid particular attention in his reports to the expansion of the manufacturing industries of the State. He published a special report on Summer hotels and seaside resorts, which attracted great attention throughout the country and is said to have added very materially to the receipts from tourists. Mr. Thomas J. Lyons has been appointed to succeed Mr. Matthews.

School Scholarships for Poor Children.

The subject of School Scholarships as a branch of child-labor work was discussed by Miss Elizabeth Gilman of Boston in *Charities and the Commons* for March 2, 1907.

Investigations in six cities show that "only a very small number of people apply for assistance or are reported to charitable societies by others interested in their welfare, whose need is due to the loss of children's earnings; and of this number it is found that a large proportion can adjust their family arrangements or can be helped by relatives, so that regular material relief is not required."

The practice in New York, Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Chicago, St. Louis, and Baltimore is to pay to certain poor families what is virtually a substitute for the children's wages which have been cut off by the child-labor legislation. In New York City and in St. Louis scholarships are granted only to children over 14 years of age, who for certain reasons have been refused employment permits, though of working age; in Brooklyn and Chicago the scholarships are granted to children under 14 years of age; in Philadelphia almost exclusively to children under 14, and in Baltimore, chiefly to children between 12 and 16 years of age. The scholarship payments range from two-thirds to the whole amount of the child's probable earnings. An effort is made by the committees in charge of the several scholarships not only to keep the particular child in school but also to urge the attendance at school of the other children in the family. The funds expended for scholarship purposes are received from individuals and

charitable associations. In New York, 95 such scholarships were granted from November 1, 1905, to December 29, 1906; in Philadelphia, 32 from May, 1905, to December 29, 1906; in Baltimore, 18 since September 1, 1906; in Chicago, 13, in the first 18 months ending March, 1905; in Brooklyn, 10 during 1906; and in St. Louis, 8 from October 1, 1906, to January 1, 1907.

The granting of school scholarships appears to be only a temporary service resulting from recent child-labor legislation which in certain instances has proven to work hardship in a few families. On this point, Miss Gilman says, "It is possible, and even probable, that when these laws have been in effect as long in other States as they have been in Massachusetts, the scholarships will not be any more needed in other places than in Boston, where they do not exist."

Industrial Arbitration in New York.

The Yale Review for February, 1907, contains an article on "Industrial Arbitration in New York State," by George Gorham Groat of New York University, School of Commerce, Accounts, and Finance. From that article the following particulars have been taken:

In 1886, New York and Massachusetts each passed laws providing for a permanent State board or commission of arbitration to be appointed by the Governor, but differing in the important respect that in New York the law required the Governor to appoint one member each from the two largest political parties in the State and the third from a labor organization, while in Massachusetts the Governor was required to appoint one member from the employing class, one from the laboring class, the third to be chosen by the other two. In New York the Workingmen's Assembly, an organization of federated unions, representing a large part of the labor strength of the State was prominent in securing the passage of the law, and until 1894 urged further legislation providing for compulsory arbitration. Since 1894 organized labor in New York State has not favored compulsory arbitration, in fact the Costello Compulsory Arbitration bill, which has been before the Legislature at more than one session, has been regularly opposed by representatives of organized labor, and the New York State branch of the American Federation of Labor has expressed itself as opposed to the passage of any such bill.

From data presented by Mr. Groat it appears that during the 15 years (1886-1900) the board acted in 409 cases; in 16 cases at the request of the employers; in 34 cases at the request of the workingmen; in eight cases at the request of both parties; and in 351 cases (86 per cent) on its own initiative. In the 409 cases in which action was taken, the action was preliminary in 135 cases (33 per cent); the action resulted in failure in 155 cases (38 per cent); and a settlement was reached (presumably through the efforts of the board) in 119 cases (29 per

cent). During the period under consideration there were recorded in the State 6,189 strikes and lockouts, of which the 409 cases acted upon by the board formed 6.6 per cent. From this, and a later showing, Mr. Groat concludes that, "There is certainly a wide margin of cases in which, for some reason, the board has not succeeded in accomplishing the work assigned."

The failure to receive an early notice of the existence of disputes undoubtedly accounts, in a large degree, for the wide difference between the number of strikes and lockouts and the number in which the board intervened, and the board has repeatedly asked for a legislative provision whereby it should be the duty of some local authority to report to it each case as it arose, and before the dispute had reached an acute stage. Another important reason for the failure of the board in so many cases lies in the fact that the board as constituted does not represent technical knowledge, but on the other hand it has been asserted that a fair-minded man is more acceptable as an arbitrator than one well versed in the technicalities of the business. It may be stated, also, that the members of the board are regarded primarily as politicians, and this opinion has become even more generally accepted since the reorganization of the board in 1901, when it was provided that the board should be composed of the State commissioner of labor, appointed by the Governor, and his first and second deputies, appointed by the commissioner, these deputies being respectively in charge of the bureau of factory inspection and the bureau of labor statistics. Under this arrangement the second largest political party is not represented, and the representation of organized labor is not required. Accordingly, there is not the bipartisanship that there formerly was, and the party in power has the control and responsibility. Further criticisms of the board refer to its slowness and lack of authority. Aside from considerations of the board itself, local pride and jealousy sometimes lead to the rejection of all offers of assistance from the State board, and arbitration must result, if at all, through the mediation of a locally constituted board composed of men in the town whose character and reputation inspire confidence.

Following the criticism in detail of the work of the State Board, Mr. Groat adds that, "While these various objections are urged from different quarters against the usefulness of the State Board, there is, at the same time, no sentiment favoring its discontinuance. The prevailing opinion seems to be that the present board should be left to work in cases where it can."

A recent change in the policy of the State Board may be noted. This change consists in its delegating its powers to the second deputy commissioner and to a Mediator of Industrial Disputes associated with him. This department, acting in behalf of the State Board, holds itself in readiness to furnish such information of

an industrial nature as may be requested. The attempt will be made to "encourage disputants to agree on arbitrators of their own selection," and special efforts are to be made to encourage the organization of local boards, which, in the opinion of the Board, "are more feasible and effective than general or State boards in the adjustment of industrial disputes and especially in their prevention."

This wide departure from practical State industrial arbitration will undoubtedly prove a disappointment to those persons who have sought to establish an effective State system. In his closing words Mr. Groat says: "To such, however, as are anxious to see the problem of industrial arbitration settled on a basis of individual action without State interference, the plan will doubtless be gratifying. If we are to look for the final solution along the line of peaceful evolution referred to, this is a step in the right direction and one deserving of every encouragement."

Child-labor Legislation.

Nebraska.

On March 30, 1907, Governor Sheldon of Nebraska approved an act passed by the Legislature to regulate the employment and use of child labor, to provide for the enforcement of its provisions, and a penalty for its violation. The new law extends the age limit for the employment of children in manufacturing and mercantile establishments from 10 to 14 years, and for children with school certificates from 14 to 16 years. No person under 16 years of age may be employed more than 48 hours in any one week, more than eight hours in one day, or between 8 P.M. and 6 A.M.

North Carolina.

The act passed by the Legislature of North Carolina raises the age limit for the employment of children in factories from 12 to 13 years, except in apprenticeship capacity, and provides that no person under 18 shall be employed more than 66 hours a week, and that parents must furnish written statements of age and school attendance. Penalties are provided for violations of the law by mill owners and parents. After January 1, 1908, no child under 14 years of age shall be employed in a factory between 8 P.M. and 5 A.M.

Railroad Pension Act in Canada.

In an article entitled "Railroad Pensions in the United States and Canada," published in Labor Bulletin No. 45, January, 1907, the statement was made that the matter of establishing a pension system by the Intercolonial Railway of Canada was under consideration by the Government of Canada, which is responsible for the management of the Intercolonial, and that the best features of the pension schemes adopted by the railways of this continent were incorporated in the bill then before

the Canadian Cabinet. An act establishing a fund "to provide life allowances to retired employees of the Intercolonial and Prince Edward Island Railways" was passed by the Dominion Parliament, and approved on March 22, 1907.

Child-labor Investigation in Ontario.

The report of the Special Committee of the Ontario Legislature, appointed on February 13 for the purpose of conducting an inquiry into the administration of the Ontario Law with reference to child labor, presented its report to the Legislature on March 27. In this report it was stated that the evidence presented led to the conclusion that the law in regard to the employment of children in factories and shops had been well enforced; that employers were for the most part disposed to co-operate in lessening and preventing the employment of children of tender years; and that conditions had been greatly improved. There was little cause for such child-labor agitation in Ontario as there appeared to be in England and the United States, nevertheless it was found that in Ontario the laws were not even yet sufficiently comprehensive and that the compulsory education law had lacked adequate enforcement. The Committee made several recommendations for a more restrictive law, and also recommended that the Government of Ontario should seek the co-operation of other provinces

in securing more uniform enactments. The report and recommendations of the Committee will be considered at the session of the Legislature in 1908. — *The Labour Gazette, Canada, April, 1907.*

The Canadian Industrial Disputes Investigation Act.

The Canadian Parliament at its recent session enacted a law entitled "An Act to Aid in the Prevention and Settlement of Strikes and Lockouts in Coal Mines and Industries Connected with Public Utilities," more briefly known as "The Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907." The new Act requires that any dispute affecting any form of public utilities, such as coal mines, transportation, telegraphs and telephones, water, gas, electric light, etc., shall be submitted to a Board of Conciliation and Investigation, which shall investigate the matter in dispute, and, if possible, bring about a settlement before a strike or lockout can legally occur. Employers and employees are required to give at least 30 days' notice of an intended change affecting wages and hours, and during that period they must refrain from all acts which shall tend to bring about a strike or lockout. The Act also provides that the statute may be applied to other industries than those specified, whenever the parties to a dispute may so desire. — *The Labour Gazette, Canada, April, 1907.*

STATISTICAL ABSTRACTS.

Massachusetts Industries.

In 1905, the product of Massachusetts was \$1,228,037,788. The value of goods made in manufacturing establishments was \$1,124,092,051. The value of the sea and shore fisheries catch was \$8,986,186. The freight and passenger earnings in ocean and coastwise commerce, \$30,959,551. The estimated value of the products of farms, market gardens, etc., \$64,000,000.

Below will be found a table which shows the percentages each of these divisions of product bears to the total value of goods produced, etc., in the State in 1895 and 1905.

CLASSIFICATION.	Percentages	
	1895	1905
THE STATE.	100.00	100.00
Manufactures, . . .	92.60	91.54
Fisheries,	0.62	0.73
Commerce,	1.02	2.52
Agriculture,	5.76	5.21

The decline in manufactures is only apparent, the figures for 1895 comprising not only the factory and mill product, but also the product of neighborhood establishments, such as dressmakers, milliners, blacksmiths, carpenters, etc. The decrease shown in agriculture is simply fractional, and subject to correction by verification of the first tabulation.

The No-license Policy in Massachusetts.

The United Kingdom Alliance has recently issued a pamphlet setting forth the results of an investigation of the no-license policy in Massachusetts, made in the Autumn of 1906 by Mr. Charles H. Roberts, M.P., of Lincoln, England.

"For temperance reformers in England," Mr. Roberts says, "Massachusetts is better worth attention than any American State." The density of population in the United Kingdom, which was 345.73 persons to the square mile in 1904, approaches very nearly that of Massachusetts.¹ Although in Massachusetts

¹ The density of population in Massachusetts in 1905 was 374 persons to the square mile.

there is a very high percentage of recent foreign immigrants which introduce difficulties from which England is free, still so far as urban and industrial development goes there is a real basis of comparison between England and Massachusetts, and "after all the inevitable allowances, some light ought to be thrown by the working of Local Option in Massachusetts on the probable working of the same system in the urban districts of England."

Reviewing the history of local option in Massachusetts, Mr. Roberts calls attention to the fact that up to 1875 the law provided for State prohibition, a system fiercely canvassed towards its close. In that year local option was adopted under which licenses were vested in an elective authority, but dissatisfaction with that system led in 1881 to the provision for a direct popular vote, annual and compulsory, in all cities and towns, decision to be by bare majority of the citizens of the respective cities and towns. Later, other features, namely, high license and limitation of number of saloons on basis of population, have been added.

For the year beginning May 1, 1906, out of 321 towns, 248 towns, having an area of 5,444 square miles or 73.9 per cent of the total area under town government, had banished the saloon from their territory. The number of towns voting for license in 1879 was 80, while, in 1906, the number so voting was 73. So far as the country districts are concerned the movement for no-license under the system of local option has gained but little headway. In the cities, however, the advance has been more decided. In 1879, out of 33 places which are now cities, only four voted for no-license, while, in 1905, as many as 15 had adopted the no-license system, a fact which is the more remarkable since 30.59 per cent of the population in Massachusetts is foreign born and the foreign born live largely in the cities. The "great captures of the no-license movement" during the period from 1879 to 1907 are Cambridge, Quincy, Waltham, Somerville, Malden, Beverly, together with Medford (which used to be the home of the Massachusetts rum industry) and Brockton (a purely manufacturing city of 47,794 inhabitants, entirely surrounded by no-license territory).

Out of 355 areas in the State, 134 have consistently voted for no-license at every election without exception for the last 25 years. Of the no-license cities, Everett, Malden, Melrose, Newton, Somerville, and Quincy have in every election voted against license; while Beverly has so voted since 1884, Cambridge since 1886, and Brockton since 1886, except for a single lapse by a majority of 13 votes in 1898. During the 25 years there have occurred 334 elections where not a single vote has been recorded for license. Of the towns, 112 have, at some time or other during the 25 years, voted unanimously against license, one town

having so voted at 16 elections out of 25. Curiously enough 21 of these 112 towns have on certain occasions voted for license. While fluctuations in voting do occur, generally speaking the results show a steady increase in favor of no-license in the cities and towns of the State.

From that portion of Mr. Roberts' study relating particularly to "Greater Boston," the following data have been selected. The area taken by him as "Greater Boston" includes 13 cities and 17 towns, covering 298.7 square miles and having, in 1905, an aggregate population of 1,226,858 persons. Of this population, 725,035 persons, or 59.1 per cent of the whole, lived under the license regime on an area of 235.2 square miles; while 501,823 persons, or 40.9 per cent of the whole, lived on an area of 235.2 square miles, under a no-license regime. Of the 13 cities of "Greater Boston," four — Boston, Chelsea, Lynn, and Woburn — were license cities in 1906 (Chelsea having since declared for no-license), while of the 17 towns, Nahant alone had voted for license.

In 1905, the average number of arrests for drunkenness per thousand of population in the license cities was 52 (for Boston alone, 58), while in the no-license cities the rate was 13. For the towns the rates were not available.

In connection with the foregoing taken from Mr. Roberts' monograph, it may be said that Boston is in effect the bar-room for the Metropolitan District, meaning by that District the area included roughly in the circle having a radius of ten miles from the State House, while Woburn, Lynn, and Nahant serve as branch supply points for the northern portion of the district and the adjoining area without the circle. With the idea in mind of limiting the liquor dispensing area of the city of Boston and abolishing the saloon in the residential portion of the city, attempts have been made to secure State legislation providing for the division of the city into districts, each district to enjoy the privilege of local option, but as yet no bill of this nature has been enacted.

Strikes and Lockouts in Connecticut, 1906.

The Connecticut Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that during the year ending October 31, 1906, there were 62 strikes and lockouts in the State as compared with 45 in the preceding year. The number of employees involved was 6,604 and the time lost by them by reason of these controversies was 160,334 days, while the corresponding wages lost by them were estimated at \$258,153 as compared respectively with 2,948 employees involved, 51,682 days lost, and \$83,208 in estimated wages lost, in 1905. The 62 disputes in 1906 occurred in 29 different cities or towns as follows: New Haven, 10; Bridgeport, eight; Hartford, seven; Norwich and New Britain, four each; Winchester (Winsted) and Vernon (Rock-

ville), three each; Torrington and Norwalk, two each; and other cities or towns, one each. The 62 disputes occurred in 40 different trades. Of the 6,604 employees involved, 4,440 were engaged in four trades as follows: 1,655 in the building trades, 1,509 as hatters and hat trimmers, 791 as weavers and spool tenders, and 485 as cigar makers.

The leading causes of the disputes were demands for increase of wages in 26 instances, for both increase of wages and shorter workday in four instances, and for shorter workday only in three instances. The striking employees were successful in their contention in 25 instances, partially successful in four instances, and unsuccessful in 22 instances, while the disputes were compromised in three instances and pending in eight instances.

Strikes and Lockouts in Missouri, 1905.

The Missouri Bureau of Labor Statistics and Inspection reported that during the year 1905 there were 40 strikes and nine lockouts in the State. Of the 49 strikes and lockouts, 31 were settled satisfactorily, six were compromised, five were lost, and seven were pending at the close of the year. The total number of persons involved in these strikes and lockouts was 2,145, the number of persons directly benefited by the outcome was 2,989, while 144 persons were directly worsted thereby. The total amount expended in support of the strikes and lockouts was \$129,433, and the total amount of wages lost to employees through strikes and lockouts was \$218,855.

Wages in Sacramento, California, 1906.

From a report showing the wages offered to persons securing positions through the Municipal Free Labor Bureau in Sacramento, California in 1906, it will be seen that the average daily wages paid are very nearly the same as those paid in Massachusetts, being as follows: Bricklayers, \$6; steamfitters, \$4.50; boiler-makers, plumbers, and pattern makers, \$4; molders, \$3.75; blacksmiths, butchers, carpenters, candy makers, electricians, and machinists, \$3.50; painters, \$3.25; box makers, miners, and paperhangers, \$3; harness makers, \$2.75; blacksmith's helpers, carpenter's helpers, gardeners, and teamsters, \$2.50; lumber workers, railroad laborers, and ordinary workmen, \$2.25; solicitors, shoe makers, and vineyardists, \$2; stable men, \$1.75; day workers, \$1.50 and board; fruit pickers, grape pickers, and seamstresses, \$1.50.

Weekly wages were paid as follows: Tailors, \$20; laundry workers, \$15; pantry men and waiters, \$10 and board; dishwashers, \$7 and board.

Monthly wages were paid as follows: Bakers, \$80; buttermakers, \$75 and board; engineers, \$75; bookkeepers, \$60; firemen and bartenders, \$50; stenographers, \$45; janitors, \$40; cooks, \$35, board and room; millers, \$35 and board; ranch hands and sheep herders, \$30

and board; bell boys, chambermaids, and porters, \$25 and board; choremen, \$25; housekeepers and house maids, \$20, board and room; nurse girls, \$15, board and room. Married couples received \$50 a month, board and room.

Piece wages were paid as follows: Fruit pickers, 10 cents a box; hop pickers, 90 cents per 100 lbs; hay balers, 15 cents a ton; and wood choppers, \$2.50 a cord.

Positions were secured by the Bureau for 10,343 persons of whom 90 per cent were classed as unskilled. The report shows that positions were secured for 5,064 railroad laborers, 1,231 ordinary laborers, 475 ranch hands, 451 miners, 348 teamsters, 257 house maids, 238 grape pickers, 225 hop pickers, 202 fruit pickers, 201 cooks, 153 carpenters, 142 stablemen, 122 waitresses, and 102 choremen; while 49 other classes of workmen were represented by less than 100 persons each.

Exports of Domestic Manufactures.

During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1906, the exports of domestic products from the United States aggregated \$1,717,953,382 of which domestic manufactures aggregated \$686,023,169, or 39.93 per cent. In the following table compiled from the report prepared by the Bureau of Statistics of the United States Department of Commerce and Labor, the exports of manufactures to the 10 leading countries are given, together with percentages showing the proportion exported to each of the countries specified:

COUNTRIES.	Value of Exports of Manufactures	Percentages of Total Exports of Manufactures
United Kingdom, . . .	\$133,459,935	19.45
Canada, . . .	90,485,933	13.19
Germany, . . .	55,032,220	8.02
Netherlands, . . .	43,431,231	6.33
Chinese Empire, . . .	41,812,222	6.10
Mexico, . . .	40,406,657	5.89
France, . . .	30,002,357	4.37
Cuba, . . .	25,624,220	3.74
Belgium, . . .	15,132,479	2.21
Italy, . . .	12,723,262	1.85
Other countries, . . .	197,912,653	28.85
TOTALS, . . .	\$686,023,169	100.00

The following table shows the value and percentages of domestic manufactures exported to the six grand divisions:

GRAND DIVISIONS.	Value of Exports of Manufactures	Percentages of Total Exports of Manufactures
Europe, . . .	\$318,503,041	46.43
North America, . . .	182,121,776	26.54
Asia, . . .	78,530,251	11.45
South America, . . .	64,328,906	9.38
Oceania, . . .	29,711,707	4.33
Africa, . . .	12,827,488	1.87
TOTALS, . . .	\$686,023,169	100.00

Railroad Accidents in the United States.

From the last report of the Interstate Commerce Commission the data in the following table, showing the casualties to passengers and employees during the year ending June 30, 1906, have been compiled:

CLASSIFICATION.	1906	
	Killed	Injured
Total passengers and employees,	* 4,225	66,709
<i>Passengers,</i>	<i>418</i>	<i>11,185</i>
In train accidents,	182	6,778
Other causes,	236	4,407
<i>Employees,</i>	<i>3,807</i>	<i>55,524</i>
In train accidents,	879	7,483
Other causes,	2,928	48,041

In comparing the number of casualties in 1906 with those of the previous year the Commissioner called attention to the fact that the volume of traffic had increased greatly during the latter year and that the number of injuries and deaths had increased also. "The tremendous increase in the volume of freight traffic has put a severe strain on the men connected with the movement of freight trains, and this has often been made the justification of or excuse for working men unduly long hours, and has led to the employment of many young and inexperienced persons. In the matter of long hours the accident records have shown instances of even worse conditions than were shown in former years.

"In the single item, that of passengers killed in collisions and derailments, the record of 1906 is not so bad as that of 1905. This is a cause for gratification; but the only certain indication of the figures is that the number and severity of *great* disasters have diminished. On the other hand, the number of persons injured, which has increased, and the casualties to trainmen for the same causes, which have increased both deaths and injuries, indicate that in the great class of what may be called ordinary train accidents there is no improvement."

The statistical tables, showing casualties to passengers and employees, published by the Commission from time to time serve to confirm "the serious and pressing character of the threefold problem" with which the Commission has to deal, and in the solution of which it has urged in its last three annual reports the following remedies: "(1) The investigation of accidents; (2) the requirement by law that the block system shall be used on passenger lines; and (3) the regulation by governmental authority of the evil of overwork by trainmen, signalmen, and telegraph operators."

In an article in *Everybody's* for April, 1907, Mr. Carl Snyder points out that "279 American roads, covering more than half the total track

mileage, and carrying more than half the passenger mileage, had no passengers killed in train accidents in 1906. All other roads, however, with less than half the track mileage and less than half the passenger mileage, killed 182 passengers. In this country not one-quarter of the total mileage is covered by any block signal system at all."

Water Taxes in Canada.

Montreal is considering the enlargement and improvement of the water system which is owned and controlled by the city, and a considerable sum is likely to be spent in the near future on this work. There is an agitation for the reduction of the present water rates. In most cases the water rates in Canadian cities appear to be levied to cover the cost of water. In Montreal it is claimed that an annual profit of \$200,000 is made on selling the water. The rate charged in Montreal is 7½ per cent on the assessed rental of dwelling houses. The meter rent per annum ranges from one-half inch at \$2 to six inches at \$75. Nevertheless a large sum, probably \$50,000, remains uncollected every year, and the advisability is being considered of making the water rate a property tax, as it is in almost every other city in Canada.

At Toronto the system adopted is to charge so much per room and inmates, \$1.50 being the lowest charge for a minimum of four rooms and two persons, rising to a maximum of \$8 per 15 rooms and 17 persons, baths, closets, etc., being charged extra. At Hamilton, Ontario, the system is a percentage on the value (not rental), commencing with a minimum of \$4.40 for any value up to \$500, advancing to \$14.40 on valuations not exceeding \$3,000, and 60 cents is charged for each additional \$250 of value. The same system prevails at Ottawa, where every lot with a building on it of a value not exceeding \$300 is charged \$8, up to \$15 for a value not exceeding \$1,000, after which \$3 is charged for every additional \$500 in value, closets and baths \$3 each, with other specials as customary. At London, Ont., the principle of charging per room exists, the minimum being \$5 for three rooms and 75 cents for each additional room.

There is a uniform charge of 12½ per cent on rental value at Quebec, with specials as customary. The charge at St. John, N. B., is one-fifth of one per cent on every \$400 of value, whether vacant land or land with buildings thereon, with a similar rate on all personal property, stocks of merchandise, etc., in addition to which there is a specific rate of \$4 per family, with high special rates for baths, closets, etc., and these rates are charged on all buildings or lots within 700 feet of any water main.

At Halifax, N. S., the rates are peculiar and complicated, with extra or special rates and taxes and rates for water supplied through

meters and enough more allotted in rates to make up any deficiency in expenditure for the year.

In most of the cases the rates appear to be levied to cover the cost, but when comparisons are made between the relative rates in different cities this factor is usually ignored, an expensive water system in one case requiring higher rates than in those which have been less expensive. — *Daily Consular and Trade Reports No. 2864.*

Co-operation in the United Kingdom.

The *Annual for 1907*, published by the Co-operative Wholesale Societies, Limited, includes tables showing the growth of the co-operative movement in the United Kingdom from 1862 to 1904, also comparative tables for the years 1894 and 1904.

In 1862, the 332 co-operative societies making returns reported, in the aggregate, a membership of 90,341, invested capital (share and loan) of \$2,351,601, sales of \$11,364,257 and net profits of \$806,287. In 1904, the 2,664 co-operative societies making returns reported, in the aggregate, a membership of 2,320,116, invested capital (share and loan) of \$212,297,608, sales of \$468,802,407, and net profits of \$47,685,774.

Comparison of the returns in 1904 with those in 1894 show an increase in the latter year over the former of 38 per cent in the number of societies making returns, 69 per cent in the number of members, 120 per cent in the capital (share and loan) invested, 85 per cent in the amount of sales, and 99 per cent in the net profits earned.

INDUSTRIAL INFORMATION.

[This department of the Bulletin will contain information valuable to the manufacturer, merchant, and exporter, and the public generally. It is based upon the daily reports of the Bureau of Manufactures of the National Department of Commerce and Labor, as well as upon original reports filed in this Office. Those who are interested in the subject may obtain copies of the Massachusetts Labor Bulletin upon application to this Office.]

Opportunity in Jamaica.

The present is a very opportune time to increase the trade of Massachusetts with Jamaica, where there is a large field for the opening of strictly wholesale American houses. The local traders, especially those who carried large stocks, heavily insured, have no prospect that the insurance companies will pay the losses sustained, or even reach an equitable adjustment. It is obvious, therefore, that new houses must take the place of those who are forced to retire. For example, one firm, the oldest and largest wholesale lumber, hardware, and agricultural-implement house in the West Indies, is now being wound up, on its own petition, by legal process, in consequence of not being able to recover the amount for which its large stock was insured. This is only one of many such cases.

It does appear hard hearted to recognize that one set of traders invariably benefit by the adverse position of another, but in the steady march of trade sentiment can not be considered, and therefore the Massachusetts manufacturer to-day has, it would appear, an opening unparalleled in the history of Jamaica's trade. All the important banks, institutions, and government buildings are centered at Kingston, and with the advent of a new city, why should

not Massachusetts manufacturers and business men take a prominent part in the rehabilitation? Fortunes have been made by British merchants, and with the well-known enterprise of leading Massachusetts traders, history can be made to repeat itself.

Tax on Commercial Travelers Repealed.

The license or tax imposed some two years ago by the Province of Quebec on nonresident commercial travelers representing persons, firms, or corporations having no place of business in Canada was repealed by the Provincial Legislature on March 14.

There is now, therefore, no license required in this Province by nonresident commercial travelers, except those selling intoxicating liquors. It is also reported in the press that British Columbia has repealed the tax on commercial travelers (other than those representing liquor and cigar firms), thus "falling into line with the other Provinces of the Dominion." Prince Edward Island, however, still imposes on nonresident commercial travelers a license fee of \$20.

American Boneless Meat.

Some time ago the public-health committee of the Edinburgh town council instructed the

chief sanitary inspector to obtain samples of the boneless meat sold in that market (imported principally from the United States) and to have these samples bacteriologically examined. In compliance with this instruction, the chief sanitary inspector from time to time submitted samples of the meat to the Usher Institute of Public Health, a branch of the University of Edinburgh, under the direction of Charles Hunter Stewart, M.B., D.Sc., professor of public health. In a report on his examinations, Professor Stewart said that the boneless meat was satisfactory and that there was no call for the committee to take any action.

Wanted.

[Wherever a "file number" is mentioned in the following notes, it is to be understood that the names and addresses, together with additional information, may be obtained from the Bureau of Manufactures, Department of Commerce and Labor, Washington, D. C. The file number must always be mentioned when writing for more definite information.]

Broom handles. — A British firm desires to hear from makers of broom handles for the purpose of importing same. File No. 1022.

Safes. — A Cuban dealer in novelties and office furniture expresses a willingness to add office safes to his varied line. File No. 958.

Beef and pork products. — A German firm wishes the names of beef and pork packers in the United States to represent such factories in Germany. File No. 1023.

Food products. — Ernst Hugo Rohl, Hamburg, Germany, wants the names of exporters of sun-dried and evaporated apples, especially of the Eastern United States.

Seeds. — A German seedsman, dealing especially in grass and clover seeds, requests to be placed on the list of importers into Germany of such lines. File No. 1036.

Ground mica. — A New York export firm wishes to buy ground mica in carload lots for export purposes and wishes to make connection with producers of same. File No. 1049.

Cotton goods, etc. — The minister of war of a European country desires prices on cotton cloth, shirtings, and all textiles suitable for clothing for the army. File No. 978.

Leather-beltting and leather. — A list of the principal leather-beltting manufacturers and leather merchants at Cardiff, Wales, can be inspected at the Bureau of Manufactures, Washington, D. C.

Candle-making machinery. — A candle manufacturer of Scandinavia desires to purchase a new American machine which gives to the candles a better and finer polish than heretofore obtained. File No. 1015.

Metallic bedsteads. — Manufacturers of metallic bedsteads in Massachusetts should send their catalogues, etc., to a furniture company in Canada; there is a possibility of being able to do something in that line. File No. 962.

Telephone equipment. — Señor Antonio Witzel, of Sao Paulo, Brazil, has a concession for the establishment of a telephone line to link up the cities of Bebedouro, Barretos, Jaboticabal, and Pitangueiras. File No. 963.

Piece goods. — A native Indian firm desires to correspond with foreign manufacturers and shippers of cotton and woolen piece goods. Address the Director-General of Commercial Intelligence, No. 5 Clive Street, Calcutta, India.

Canned goods and provisions. — Names and addresses of business men in one of the West Indian Islands, who would entertain propositions to act as agents for American packing-house products and provisions, can be obtained in Washington. File No. 983.

South American traveling. — Two business men in a South American country would be willing to undertake commercial tours of that continent for firms in the United States. Both have had extensive traveling experience. File No. 961.

American office furniture — should find a very good market in Canada. Recently a modern office building was erected in Three Rivers. An enterprising firm might place an entering wedge there that would bring big returns to that branch of trade.

Shoes. — A large firm of Australia is anxious to obtain price lists, etc., from manufacturers of high-grade shoes; they handle articles of the best quality only, and this is an excellent opportunity for a Massachusetts manufacturer to make a good connection. File No. 971.

Looms. — Sajiro Tateish, No. 43, Minami-machi, Takanawa, Shibaku, Tokyo, Japan, wants catalogues of machinery for weaving cloth similar to imitation leather; also requests manufacturers of the machinery to send samples of work, with prices and discount.

Tallow. — A South American industrial company wishes to be put in communication with parties selling tallow in 50 and 100 ton lots; the company manufactures on a large scale soap, candles, and glue, and imports extensively. It wishes to do business at first hand. File No. 970.

Graphite, tallow, cotton-seed oil, etc. — A New York foreign freight forwarder writes that one of his customers in Germany is desirous of being placed in touch with American manufacturers of graphite, tallow, cotton-seed oil, and similar articles. File No. 1032.

Paris representation. — A business man of Paris, France, being already an agent of several foreign firms, would be glad to be appointed the representative in France of any important American house which may want one in Paris. He offers references and guaranties, if required. File No. 1033.

Notebooks. — An American consular officer in the south of Europe reports a request for supplies of all sorts of notebooks, also writing pads which come in binders and which upon being consumed may be refilled with fresh pads. The inquirer desires articles of this kind of all classes, with and without indexes. File No. 987.

Alcohol and hardware novelties. — A merchant in Belgium writes that, although busy, he can always find time to introduce something new if it is profitable. He especially desires to learn more of some new kinds of alcohol made in the United States, and any catalogues of hardware specialties will be received with thanks. File No. 1034.

Furniture. — One of the largest furniture dealers in a tropical island requests to be put in correspondence with some Massachusetts manufacturers of furniture. The class used is a medium, not very expensive kind; also many cane-bottom chairs of different styles. Very little upholstered furniture is imported. Correspondence in Spanish is preferred. File No. 1024.

Sewing machines. — A hardware dealer in the Levant wishes to correspond with American manufacturers of sewing machines and typewriters. He intends to devote an entire floor of his place to these two articles, but he wishes to make an advertising point that his goods are really made in America. He desires illustrated catalogues and literature. File No. 991.

School books in Spanish. — An important firm of booksellers in Spain desires to be put into communication with exporters of American school books printed in the Spanish language. Catalogues and price lists, if sent to the consulate of the United States at the city in question, will be delivered to the parties interested. File No. 973.

Cotton. — A merchant in Greece desires to arrange with some American firm for the importation of cotton in bales. He states that his idea is to import directly from the United States if he could get in touch with the right house. When prices are low the annual consumption of cotton in Greece is about 8,000 bales. File No. 972.

Leather-trade novelties. — A firm in Holland has an interest in the sale of all kinds of novelties which can be sold to shoe manufacturers or to merchants in the shoe and leather trade. The firm furnishes its New York banking refer-

ences from which all necessary information can be obtained concerning their standing. File No. 990.

Boxes, labels, paper, bottles, etc. — A Canadian firm writes that it desires to purchase chip boxes for druggists' use, turned wood and paper boxes, folding box boards, bottles, blank books, gelatin capsules, empty kenseals, filter papers, corrugated papers or board, labels, dies for cutting paper envelopes, and sealing wax. File No. 969.

Boxes. — The New Zealand Transvaal Chemical Company (Limited), P. O. Box 1829, Johannesburg, South Africa, desires quotations for the supply of boxes to the extent of 35,000 to 50,000 per month. The sizes are in inches, as follows: 13 x 9 x 8; 16½ x 8½ x 9½; 13 x 10½ x 8½; and 13 x 9½ x 8½. Firms quoting must be prepared to compete against Norwegian and Swedish manufacturers.

Rubber goods. — A business man in England, who says he has had ten years' experience in the Midlands in the sale of India-rubber goods of all kinds, is anxious to obtain an agency for Birmingham and the territory including Leicester, Leeds, and Manchester for overshoes of all kinds, tennis shoes, rubber heels, balls, surgical and mechanical goods, and other rubber articles. File No. 975.

Shoe-factory equipment. — A group of shoe-makers in a European country has received a Government contract to supply 60,000 pairs of shoes annually, at about \$2 per pair. A factory will be started at once, and Massachusetts machinery manufacturers and leather and shoe findings dealers would do well to communicate with the parties. Illustrated catalogues and propositions should be sent. File No. 976.

Cotton goods. — A firm in a shipping port of northern Europe says: "At present we deal as agents for English manufacturers in the cotton trade — white goods, fancies, prints, etc. — all piece goods. Learning that such goods are also made in the United States, we should like to find out if there are American manufacturers who are in a position to compete against the English ones." File No. 1016.

Canned lobsters. — A large and reliable dealer in canned goods of every description, in Turkey, requests to be put in touch with an exporter of canned lobsters. He has no choice as to brand, but is desirous of ordering cases which contain 48 cans, each weighing one pound. Massachusetts dealers are advised to act on this opportunity at once, as it will undoubtedly lead to openings in other lines. File No. 986.

Agricultural implements and tools. — An American consul in South Africa furnishes the name of a firm of general agents and contractors, with an American recently installed as manager of the importing and indenting department, which desires to represent through

Natal and South Africa American exporters of a general line of agricultural implements and farming tools. This firm formerly confined its business to contractor's supplies, but recently extended its business. File No. 974.

Brush brooms. — A European firm would like very much to receive catalogues and samples with export price list from American firms manufacturing brush brooms. The catalogues should contain illustrations of small straw brush brooms of all styles and qualities, from the simplest to the nicest. These useful and practical little brooms are not known at all on the Continent of Europe, and are probably manufactured nowhere in considerable quantities except in the United States. A market for these brooms ought to be readily created, not only in that country, but all over Europe. File No. 977.

Elevators and whitewashing machines. — An importing agent in Italy writes that he is interested in a firm which has taken the contract to build many new houses, every one of which is to have a lift. He desires to know if there is not an American house making these lifts which could offer them at favorable prices and terms. The same importer would also like to hear from some company making pumps for whitewashing, of which he wants a large number. He states that they must be really practical pumps and guaranteed in every way, and if the firm proposing is prepared to send one to try so much the better, for if satisfactory it would probably get the business. File No. 1035.

Representation in England. — An American consul in Great Britain sends the names of two Englishmen who seek commercial connection with some concern in the United States "requiring sound, capable agents" in Europe. They state that they can furnish banking and other references, and are forming a partnership for which they wish the sole agency for the United Kingdom and the Continent for American manufacturers. Both are said to be linguists, speaking three languages, and to have important business connections on the Continent. They are particularly anxious to obtain an up-to-date carburetor for motor cycles, touring and commercial automobiles. At present the carburetors used by British motor-car manufacturers are of French origin, but these gentlemen are disposed to think that an equally good or better carburetor — one that will not get out of order — has been developed in the United States. They are also especially interested in small parts for motors, such as screws and bolts. If a good prospect of securing an American agency developed, one of the firm would come to the United States for the purpose of investigation and to make the necessary arrangements. File No. 1053.

School furniture. — An American missionary society has about completed the building of two large school buildings in a foreign country. The American consul there is informed that they will be equipped throughout with new furniture, and furnishes the address of the party who should be addressed by those seeking to effect sales of equipment. File No. 951.

Woolen cloth. — Mr. Iddings forwards specifications and samples of cloth required by the Egyptian Government for warders' uniforms. The tenders were all to be in by April 6 for the necessary 3,200 meters. While the date for bidding has passed, the samples may prove of value to American woolen manufacturers, to whom they will be loaned upon application to the Bureau of Manufactures. File No. 954.

Cut glass. — A dealer in South Europe states to an American consul that he would be glad to receive illustrated catalogues of cut-glass articles with prices expressed in French francs or English pounds. The consul adds that the market there presents an excellent opening for the sale of American cut glass. The importers stated that they did not know these goods were produced in the United States. File No. 938.

Canned and dried fruit, and cakes. — One of the most important grocery stores in Austria is desirous of being placed in communication with American exporters of the best qualities of canned fruits. This firm is also in the market for the best qualities of all kinds of canned goods; also for pickles, catsup, cakes, dried fruits, jellies, etc.. The firm would buy on cash basis and in large quantities. Correspondence in German. File No. 904.

Office specialties. — An Austrian agent for English duplicating machines finds that in his canvassing work his agency has good opportunity to introduce office devices such as addressing machines, sealing machines, time stamps, calculating machines, numbering machines, filing devices, typewriters and supplies, and general office stationery. Through an American consulate he expresses a desire to be placed in communication with American manufacturers of office specialties. Correspondence in either English or German. File No. 902.

Cotton goods. — Consul-General G. B. Ravndal writes as follows: "It would undoubtedly pay any American association of manufacturers of cotton goods to send a specialist out here with a large and well assorted consignment of all the cheaper grades of American cottons to be placed in the hands of leading local houses at Beirut, Aleppo, Bagdad, and Port Sudan, and sold, even at a loss, in order that they may become well and widely known." Two Asiatic firms are named by the consul who, he says, might be intrusted with the experiment. File No. 895.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.

The following issues of the annual reports of this Department remain in print and will be forwarded when requested, upon receipt of the price set against each Part and bound volume.

Annual Report on the Statistics of Labor.

1893. Bound in cloth, postage 15 cents. This report contains a special report on Unemployment, and Labor Chronology for the year 1893; this latter will be mailed separately for 5 cents.

1896. Bound in cloth, postage 15 cents. Contains, I. Social and Industrial Changes in the County of Barnstable (postage 5 c.); II. Graded Weekly Wages, 1810-1891, second part (postage 10 c.); III. Labor Chronology for 1896 (postage 5 c.).

1897. Bound in cloth, postage 15 cents. Contains, I. Comparative Wages and Prices, 1860-1897 (postage 5 c.); II. Graded Weekly Wages, 1810-1891, third part (postage 10 c.); III. Labor Chronology for 1897 (postage 5 c.).

1898. Bound in cloth, postage 25 cents. Contains, I. Sunday Labor (postage 5 c.); II. Graded Weekly Wages, 1810-1891, fourth part (postage 15 c.); III. Labor Chronology for 1898 (postage 5 c.).

1899. Bound in cloth, postage 15 cents. Contains, I. Changes in Conducting Retail Trade in Boston since 1874 (postage 5 c.); II. Labor Chronology for 1899 (postage 10 c.).

1900. Bound in cloth, postage 25 cents. Contains, I. Population of Massachusetts in 1900; II. The Insurance of Workingmen (postage 10 c.); III. Graded Prices, 1816-1891 (postage 15 c.).

1903. Bound in cloth, postage 15 cents. Contains, I. Race in Industry (postage 5 c.); II. Free Employment Offices in the United States and Foreign Countries (postage 5 c.); III. Social and Industrial Condition of the Negro in Massachusetts (postage 5 c.); IV. Labor and Industrial Chronology for 1903 (postage 5 c.).

1905. Bound in cloth, postage 20 cents. Contains, I. Industrial Education of Working Girls (postage 5 c.); II. Cotton Manufactures in Massachusetts and the Southern States (postage 5 c.); III. Old-age Pensions (postage 5 c.); IV. Industrial Opportunities not yet Utilized in Massachusetts (postage 5 c.); V. Statistics of Manufactures: 1903-1904 (postage 5 c.); VI. Labor and Industrial Chronology (postage 5 c.).

1906. Part I. The Apprenticeship System (postage 5 c.); II. Trained and Supplemental Employees for Domestic Service (postage 5 c.); III. The Incorporation of Trade Unions (postage 5 c.); IV. Statistics of Manufactures: 1904-1905 (postage 5 c.); V. Labor Laws of Massachusetts (postage 5 c.); VI. Labor and Industrial Chronology (postage 10 c.).

Annual Report on the Statistics of Manufactures.

Publication begun in 1886, but all volumes previous to 1892 are now out of print. Each volume contains comparisons, for identical establishments, between two or more years as to Capital Devoted to Production, Goods Made and Work Done, Stock and Materials Used, Persons Employed, Wages Paid, Time in Operation, and Proportion of Business Done. The Industrial Chronology which forms a Part of each report up to and including the year 1902 presents an Industrial Chronology by Towns and Industries. Beginning with the year 1903, the Industrial Chronology is combined with that for Labor under the title of Labor and Industrial Chronology and forms a part of the Annual Report on the Statistics of Labor. Beginning with the year 1904, the Annual Report on the Statistics of Manufactures was discontinued as a separate volume and now forms a part of the Report on Labor.

The volumes now remaining in print are given below, the figures in parentheses indicating the amount of postage needed to secure them:

1892 (15 c.); **1893** (15 c.); **1894** (15 c.); **1895** (15 c.); **1896** (10 c.); **1897** (10 c.); **1898** (15 c.), contains also a historical report on the Textile Industries; **1899** (10 c.); **1900** (10 c.); **1902** (10 c.); **1903** (10 c.).

Special Reports.

A Manual of Distributive Co-operation—1885 (postage 5 c.).

Reports of the Annual Convention of the National Association of Officials of Bureaus of Labor Statistics in America—1902, 1903, 1904, 1905, and 1906 (postage 5 cents each).

LABOR BULLETINS

OF THE

COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

These Bulletins contain a large variety of interesting and pertinent matter on the Social and Industrial Condition of the Workingman, together with leading articles on the Condition of Employment, Earnings, etc. The following numbers are the only ones now remaining in print, and will be forwarded upon receipt of five cents each to cover the cost of postage.

No. 31, May, 1904. City Labor in Massachusetts—Review of Employment and Earnings for Six Months ending April 30, 1904—Average Retail Prices in 17 Cities—Bi-monthly Record of Strikes and Lockouts—Editorial, Rev. Jesse H. Jones—Industrial Agreements—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Open and Closed Shop—Labor Legislation in Other States and Foreign Countries—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 32, July, 1904. Child Labor in the United States and Massachusetts—Net Profits of Labor and Capital—The Inheritance Tax—Absence after Pay Day—Pay of Navy Yard Workmen—Labor Legislation in Massachusetts for 1904—Industrial Agreements—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Eight-hour Workday—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 36, June, 1905. Tramps and Vagrants. Census of 1905—The Loom System—Weekly Day of Rest—Wages and Hours of Labor on Public Works—The Census Enumerators of 1905—Average Retail Prices, October and April—Semi-annual Record of Strikes and Lockouts: Six Months ending April 30, 1905—Labor Legislation in Massachusetts for 1905—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Profit Sharing—Industrial Agreements—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 42, July, 1906. Non-Collectable Indebtedness—Pawnbrokers' Pledges—Hours of Labor in Certain Occupations—Labor Legislation in 1906—Current Comment on Labor Questions: The Inheritance Tax—Industrial Information—Industrial Agreements—Trade Union Notes—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 43, September, 1906. Organization of Trade Schools—Textile Schools in the United States—Convention of Labor Bureaus—Maternity Aid—Stone-meal as a Fertilizer—Injunctions against Strikes and Lockouts—Industrial Information—Industrial Agreements—Trade Union Notes—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts

—Statistical Abstracts—Trade Union Directory for 1906.

No. 45, January, 1907. Income and Inheritance Taxes—Child Labor and the Census—Cotton Manufacturing in Massachusetts in 1850 and 1905—Railroad Pensions in the United States and Canada—Convict Labor in Massachusetts—The President on Labor Matters—Trade Union Notes—Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor—Industrial Agreements—Current Comment: Old-age Pensions—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Magazine Articles on Labor Topics, 1906.

No. 46, February, 1907. Unemployment in Massachusetts—State Free Employment Office—Insurance against Unemployment in Foreign Countries—The Metropolitan District—Population: Boston and Massachusetts—Labor Legislation: United States and Canada, 1906—Industrial Agreements—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Industrial Information.

No. 47, March, 1907. Boston's Taxpayers—Distributive Co-operation in New England—Industrial Education for Shoe Workers—Technical Education: England and the United States—Females in Gainful Occupations, 1895, 1905—Strikes and Lockouts: Massachusetts, 1905-06—State Free Employment Office—Labor Legislation in Foreign Countries, 1906—Current Comment: Large versus Small Families—Trade Union Notes—Industrial Agreements—Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Industrial Information.

No. 48, April, 1907. Manufactures: Massachusetts and Other States, No. 1, Comparison for Certain Industries—The German Workman—Business Advertising—Postal Savings Banks—State Free Employment Office—Trade Union Notes—Industrial Agreements—Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Industrial Information.

No. 50, June, 1907. Manufactures: Massachusetts and Other States, No. 3, Comparison by States—Changes in Rates of Wages and Hours of Labor in Massachusetts, 1906—Free Employment Offices—Estimated Population of Massachusetts Cities, 1906-1910—Trade Unions in Foreign Countries—Quarterly Record of Strikes and Lockouts—Trade Union Notes—Industrial Agreements—Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Industrial Information—Index to Bulletins Nos. 45 to 50.





